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Code switching in ELT Teaching Practice in Turkey: Teacher practices,
beliefs and identity

by

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List of Abbreviations

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

MONE: The Turkish Ministry of National Education

CHE – YÖK: The Higher Education Council

CA: Conversation Analysis

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

FLA: Foreign Language Acquisition

AL: Applied Linguistics

SR: Stimulated Recall

TL: Target Language

FL: Foreign Language

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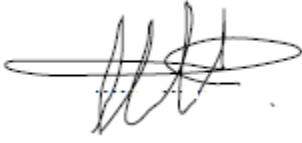
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Dedicated to my late grandmother, Müzeyyen Akdoğan and grandfathers, Kadem Akdoğan and Cevat Seymen.

“Sometimes I get overcharged, that’s when you see the sparks.”

Declaration

I declare that the present thesis represents my own work, except where due acknowledgement is made, and that it has not been previously included in a thesis, dissertation, assignment, or report submitted to this University or to any other institution for a degree, diploma, or any other qualifications.



Sezen Seymen Bilgin

Abstract

Code switching involves the interplay of two languages and as well as serving linguistic functions, it has social and psychological implications. In the context of English language teaching, these psychological implications reveal themselves as teachers' thought processes. While the nature of code switching in language classrooms has been widely studied, as yet little if any attention has been paid to the relationship between such switching and the beliefs of the teachers involved. This study is designed to respond to this gap in current research.

In the study, I worked with five student teachers undertaking their teaching practicum at a private school in Turkey, aiming to investigate their thinking in relation to code switching in their classrooms by using the analysis of classroom interactions, individual interviews and stimulated recall interviews.

The first step of the research involved video recording lessons taught by the five student teachers within the framework of their university Teaching Practice course. This was followed by individual interviews with the student teachers focusing on their views of code switching during their teaching experience and their general views about language teaching. The last stage involved stimulated recall interviews with the student teachers based on selected extracts from their lessons chosen after an analysis of spoken interaction in their classes. The data were then analysed using thematic analysis.

The findings revealed that code switching is more than merely a linguistic matter; it is also indicative of a number of other dimensions including how teachers define themselves professionally, teacher beliefs, teacher identity, affective factors influencing teachers, and their relationships with supervisors. This study suggests that code switching could usefully be included as a topic in teacher education programmes and in supervisor/mentor training.

1 INTRODUCTION

Research on talk in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom has shifted from drawing conclusions on the basis of observations of teacher / learner classroom behaviours to an interest in the practices involved in their interaction. One of these practices is code switching and there is a growing body of research on the pedagogical implications of this in EFL classrooms.

At all stages of teaching in EFL classrooms, language teachers experience a struggle between the theory and practice and with the effects of the interplay between languages. As a teacher myself, I might have had struggles of my own. However, it was not until I started working as an observer and external adviser for student teachers during their teaching practice course that I realized that the student teachers had been struggling with how to handle code switching while teaching. I had the chance to observe their experiences because I was working as a research assistant at the ELT Department of Kocaeli University. The students came up to me with questions about the benefits and/or the disadvantages of code switching in their lessons. They did not feel intimidated or reluctant in addressing these questions to me because I was not there to evaluate them for their choices or performances in the lessons, unlike their supervisor or tutor.

These questions directed me to refer to the literature on this phenomenon. My first impression of the body of research I explored was that the issue had mostly been dealt with in terms of the role of the L1 and the L2 in the classroom and that a

consensus had not been reached on the use of code switching in interaction in that context. More particularly, I looked for studies on code switching in Turkish setting to obtain more relevant information. To my surprise, I have not come across many studies on code switching – let alone its interactional underpinnings. Moreover, the fact that the student teachers kept asking these questions to me revealed a gap in the teacher training programme which is expected to prepare these teachers for the potential situations and skills that might come into play in actual teaching environments. These issues made me more curious about this subject and I decided to explore them further.

The present study aims to explore the interaction patterns between students and student teachers in EFL classrooms with a specific focus on code switching and how it contributes to the interaction in the classroom. It also aims to investigate the relationship between their views of code switching and their more general beliefs about teaching methods and approaches. It is hoped that in addition to throwing light on an important area this might also have implications for approaches to teacher preparation in Turkey.

For these purposes, I will identify patterns of interaction that emerge from data from the student teachers' teaching sessions. In order to reveal the underlying thought processes of student teachers while teaching, I also employ stimulated recall interviews in addition to individual interviews focusing on code switching and the student teachers' relationship with their supervisors and/or tutors.

Even though there is a growing body of research on code switching in various educational contexts all over the world, there is a paucity of research on code switching in the Turkish EFL context. This study aims to address to the gap of research on code switching in this context.

1.1. Context

In this section I represent the context of my study in order to provide a better understanding of the findings and the discussion related to them. I chose Turkish EFL classrooms and the student teachers at Kocaeli University because I was interested in exploring teacher education within the scope of the senior year course 'Teaching Practice' and I already had connections with the institution. I was also interested in the potential code choice situations facing students in their teaching in relation to their interaction with their supervisors and/or tutor. Therefore, by way of providing a broader context in which to understand this, I present a brief overview of EFL teaching in Turkey and the educational system it is based on.

1.1.1. The EFL Teacher Training Setting in Turkey

As a result of Turkey being a country located between Europe and the Middle East geographically, culturally and strategically, and seeking integration into the European Union, possessing a good command of English has become an invaluable asset for its citizens (Palfreyman, 2005; Atay and Kurt, 2006). Therefore, there has been a recent surge in demand for competent English teachers. Consequently, the status of English language teaching and training has expanded considerably in

Turkey (Üstünel and Seedhouse, 2005; Atay and Kurt, 2006; Deniz and Şahin, 2006; Atay and Ece, 2009; Coşkun, 2010; Ozturk and Atay, 2010).

Historically, following the introduction of English language into the Turkish education system during the Tanzimat Period (the Innovation Regulation which covered the era between 1839 and 1876) in the Ottoman era, the teaching of English has become a government driven policy since the 1950s reaching its peak after the 1980s (Doğançay-Aktuna, 1998; Atay and Ece, 2009). The status of English in Turkey is now that of the main foreign language taught in most government and private sponsored schools at all levels. Other popular foreign languages are German and French but they are far from achieving the dominance of English all over the country (Üstünel and Seedhouse, 2005; Kırkgöz, 2007).

According to the survey results presented by the MONE [The Turkish Ministry of National Education] (2006) the number of private and Anatolian high schools which offer English education increased from 443 to 650 between the academic years 2000/1 and 2005/6. A factor contributing to this rapid increase was the education reform which took place in 1997. The new legislation made English teaching in Turkish educational institutions obligatory starting from 4th grade on. In addition to this, this was the first curriculum to include a communicative language teaching approach (Kırkgöz, 2005). The curriculum of teacher education faculties in higher education was also reformed, with the amount of time dedicated to methodology and the teaching practice time in schools increased, along with the introduction of a *Teaching English to Young Learners* course for the first time (Kırkgöz, 2007).

The latest development in English language teacher training institutions is the adjustments implemented within the framework of the Bologna Process which started in 1999. The aims of the Bologna Process include accessibility, flexibility, quality and innovation. According to the Bologna Process student teachers have to complete 30 credits of course work per term, which makes a total of 60 credits per year. By the end of four years of undergraduate study, they have to have 240 credits and the teaching practice course attracts a considerable amount of credits compared to the other courses, including eight credits in the last term of the senior year.

As a result of government policies and the demand from people because of the growing dominance of English all over the world, the number of the institutions in Turkey training English teachers has increased. As of 2011, according to CHE, of the 103 state universities, 32 have English language teaching training programmes. As for the private universities, 10 out of 62 offer English language teaching programmes. All of these programmes offer four year undergraduate programmes designed to train English language teachers, employing the same core course work regulated by CHE, though with differences in the elective courses designed to meet the needs of the state and private sponsored schools, courses and language-teaching related initiatives in Turkey. The core courses that all universities follow are: Contextual Grammar I/II, Listening and Pronunciation I/II, Oral Communication Skills I/II, Educational Psychology, Vocabulary Knowledge, Teaching Methods and Principles Linguistics I/II, English Literature I/II, Approaches to English Teaching I/II, English-Turkish Translation, Teaching Technology and Materials Design, Special Teaching Methods I/II, Language Acquisition, Classroom Management,

Drama, Teaching English to Young Learners I/II, Teaching Language Skills I/II, Literature and Language Teaching I/II, Evaluation and Assessment, Guidance, Special Education, Material Evaluation and Development in Foreign Language Teaching, School Experience, Teaching Practice (Practicum), Comparative Education and Evaluation and Assessment in Foreign Language Teaching.

The participant student teachers in my study have all successfully completed the courses listed above except the courses of the second term of the senior year. Obviously, during the data collection period they were still continuing to attend the courses in the last term of their training.

1.1.2. Research Setting

In this section, my aim is to provide background information about the research setting. The data were collected at a private school in Kocaeli which had agreed to allow trainee teachers from Kocaeli University to undertake teaching practice during the spring semester of the 2010-2011 academic year. Thus, information will be provided about the teacher training programme of Kocaeli University, regulated by the Council for Higher Education (CHE) and its relation to the private school, which is bound by the regulations set by the Ministry of National Education (MONE).

The Higher Education Council (YÖK) is an autonomous organization established in 1981 that regulates all universities and higher education institutions in Turkey. YÖK's tasks include directing the activities of the higher education institutions, and

designing short and long term plans to train academic staff. In Turkey, all language teacher education programmes are required to offer core coursework for student teachers and this coursework is suggested by the Council for Higher Education. Thus, Kocaeli University follows the programme suggested by YÖK, which takes four years of study. The programme includes courses which aim to contribute to the development of several skills by student teachers. With these courses, they are trained to develop professional skills such as preparing and analysing lesson plans, organizing classroom activities, giving feedback, managing classrooms, counselling, developing and analysing tests and examinations, organizing classroom activities and so on. This education is designed to train student teachers for the schools of MONE and private institutions, which follow centralized curricula throughout the country.

The data collection procedure of this study took place within the framework of a senior year course called Teaching Practice, which is a compulsory class for all ELT students in the department. In this particular class, student teachers are supposed to teach at least one hour per week during the term and cover the weekly assignments assigned to them by the supervisor teacher they have at school. At the same time, they are expected to discuss the experiences they have at school with their tutor at the university and write a report on what they have done that week. The performance of the student teachers is assessed both by the supervisor teacher at the school and the tutor at university. In this research setting, there is no official teaching method that teachers have to follow; however, there is an institutional policy that encourages as much student centred teaching as possible. Teaching

Practice takes from 10 to 16 weeks during the last term of the senior year. It is the continuation of the course taken during the same year's autumn term called School Experience, during which each student teacher is required to observe the teacher of a particular classroom at schools assigned by the Kocaeli University. The teacher of this class is then appointed as the supervisor teacher of the students who have observed his or her class and is in charge of helping these student teachers in preparing their lessons and materials. In addition to supervisor teachers at schools, student teachers are also observed and marked by a tutor lecturer from the university as part of the whole process of teacher training.

The schools where student teachers undertake their Teaching Practice are regulated by the Ministry of National Education (MONE). MONE's responsibility is to direct all state and private education up to higher education level. MONE's role and function in national education was set by the law on Unification of Education in 1924. Its roles include policy making, assessment, assigning teachers and administrators to the schools, curricula construction and developing strategies for the national educational system.

The Student Selection and Placement Centre is an organization established in 1974 and regulated by Higher Education Council. The centre's tasks include the preparation, distribution, assessment and placement of the students to be admitted to the higher educational institutions in Turkey. At high school, students are grouped according to the field they want to pursue their career in and take tests according to the programme they would like to study. The placement tests are

called University Entrance Examinations. The participant student teachers took University Entrance Examination and additionally a Language Test (upper-intermediate-advanced level) because they would be following language related programmes.

The classes that student teachers taught were assigned according to the supervisor teachers' classes by the university. They always taught the same classes except for one occasion when the students of the class they were teaching were absent because of a school trip.

1.2. Initial Conclusions

The context above reveals insights about the importance of English inquiry in Turkish EFL setting and how it is managed by YÖK at Kocaeli University. In this study, I aim to approach the role of code switching from the perspective of how the phenomenon can help us to understand student teacher behaviour more meaningfully. At this point, I had to consider three elements relevant to organizing this process: YÖK's teacher training programme (which is mandatory), MONE's agenda in English teaching (which is followed by the school where student teachers are teaching) and Kocaeli University's attitude. Of all these factors affecting the teaching process, none of them make a reference to how to deal with code switching in a lesson context. YÖK's manual for the Teaching Practice course does not provide guidance for the student teachers, supervisors, or the tutors on the possible impacts of code choice. The curriculum suggested by MONE is not designed to guide student teachers in that direction either, alas; it is not their initial responsibility.

However, student teachers are expected to teach making use of the curriculum available. At this point, the role of the supervisors and the tutor stand out. Supervisors are pressured with the schedule they have to complete in accordance with the requirements of MONE along with providing guidance for student teachers. However, they are not expected to discuss code switching with student teachers specifically, as the official institutional and pedagogical outcomes do not involve an approach for code choices. The tutor and supervisor contribution to this is a rather vague area in that the relationship between the student teachers and the tutors and the supervisors might not provide an environment which leads to an opportunity to discuss code switching. As a result of these factors and their implications, it might be useful to explore code switching and how it helps to understand teachers' behaviours in EFL contexts by analysing the interaction in the classroom initially in a Turkish context and potentially in other EFL contexts which share similar challenges and features.

2. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the review of the related literature of the study is presented. Firstly, I present the historical development of code switching and how it relates to student teacher education contexts. Secondly I discuss teacher training and its impact on student teacher development as it is the context of my study. Finally I draw on teacher cognition in order to understand the teacher thinking processes and how student teachers are influenced by their beliefs, identities and selves as a result of this process.

2.1. Code switching

2.1.1. Definitions and Historical Development of Code switching

Code switching, which *Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary* defines as the “the practice of changing between languages when you are speaking” has long been of interest to researchers in linguistics (Poplack, 1980; Grosjean, 1982; Appel and Muysken, 1987) and sociolinguistics (Blom and Gumperz, 1972; Auer, 1988; Myers and Scotton, 1998). Due to the great deal of attention it has gained, research has resulted in a very complex picture arising from the different linguistic approaches and contexts in which code switching has been addressed.

In the 1950s and 1960s, code switching was studied within the scope of the peripheral linguistics by few scientists (Auer, 1998). Therefore, most of the early research focused on bilingual contexts or aimed to investigate functions of code switching in the United States in multilingual social settings (Greggio and Gil, 2007).

The pioneering research on code switching mostly dwelled on the sociolinguistic, psychological and syntactic aspects of speech in social contexts (Blom and Gumperz, 1972; Poplack, 1980; Vogt, 1954). Blom and Gumperz's groundbreaking study, for example, aimed to identify the social relationships analysing the speech events of the speakers involved. In addition to unearthing the social information associated with code switches, this study also proposed the functional distinction between situational and metaphorical code switching which was ground breaking for its time.

However, the first article to use the term "code switching" is generally regarded to be Vogt's article 'Language Contacts', published in 1954 (Alvarez-Cáccamo, 1998; Benson 2001). Vogt was inspired by Weinreich's book *Languages in Contact* (1953). In his article, Vogt states that code switching is a psychological phenomenon:

Code-switching in itself is perhaps not a linguistic phenomenon, but rather a psychological one and its causes are obviously extra linguistic. But bilingualism is of great interest to the linguist because it is the condition of what has been called interference between languages.

(Vogt, 1954, p.368, cited in Nilep, 2006)

These studies focused on the possible social and psychological functions of bilingual speech in social contexts and it was only after the 1980s that research on code switching in EFL classrooms began to be recognized by researchers as systematic rather than a "possibly a somewhat peculiar...act" (Luckmann, 1983, p. 97 cited in

Auer, 1998). This recognition of the importance of systematic code switching in EFL classrooms represented a shift from a predominantly socio-psycholinguistic analysis of code switching towards an interest in the pedagogical implications of code switching in such classrooms. This is mainly because, in the mid-1990s, researchers realized that code switching in language classrooms might contribute to the interactional work teachers and students collaboratively construct. Various issues related to pedagogical implications of code switching have been explored (Greggio and Gil, 2007). Studies conducted by Martin-Jones (1995), Flyman and Burenhult (1999), Macaro (2001) and Seidlitz (2003) emphasized the communicative functions of code switching in EFL classrooms, focusing on different aspects of this. Macaro (2001), for example discusses the facilitator role of code switching to create interaction in foreign language classrooms. Eventually, research into code switching in EFL classes developed into two strands, which were first identified by Martin-Jones (1995):

- The first strand of research involves the early studies which aimed to conduct classroom discourse analysis in bilingual classrooms. The main focuses of those studies were the communicative functions of teacher initiated code switching and the frequency of the language used to perform switches.
- The second strand involves more contemporary studies mainly focused on the sequential flow of classroom discourse. Classroom discourse is regarded as the result of teacher and student interaction. In order to take account of

the classroom discourse, a conversation analytic approach has been used, sometimes combined with ethnographic observation.

Martin-Jones's (1995) identification of these two strands of research into code switching constitutes an explicit foundation of possible different focuses one might have in a study on code switching. The two strands do not necessarily mean that they cannot include some features of one another; for instance communicative functions which belong to the first strand can still be discussed in a study which has a conversational analytic approach. In conversation analytic studies patterns of interaction emerge from the data and it might be worth considering how the potential communicative functions associated with that might contribute to a broader understanding of talk in the class, which is a dimension of my study.

A more recent identification of definition to code switching was suggested by Levine (2011) considering the micro-interactional characteristics of conversation which are studied by linguists using conversation analysis as a method (Auer, 1984; Wei, 1998, 2000). These definitions are as follows:

- Code switching is the systematic, alternating use of two or more languages in a single utterance or conversational exchange.
- Code switching is the systematic use of linguistic material from two or more languages in the same sentence or conversation. (p. 50).

Levine's (2011) definitions assert that code switching is systematic but differs in terms of the approach to the use of language or 'choice of codes'. As for the first definition, a speaker's move from one code to another, in other words "the act of switching" (p. 50) is relevant. Levine defines this act as speech as a train riding from one track to another, tracks being L1 and L2 within a single utterance or a conversational exchange. According to the second definition, the usage of two or more languages in a speech act cognitively or verbally is "either unexpressed or irrelevant" (ibid) because the focus is on the linguistic system used by the speakers. In other words, it involves the process of speaker's choice of different linguistic systems and whether these choices create a system itself. My study has a closer relationship to Levine's first definition. Its aims include unearthing systematic conversational considerations speakers have during interaction rather than focusing on the linguistic varieties they choose from both the L1 and the L2. This, however, does not mean I completely ignore speakers' linguistic considerations during the interaction as they might represent insights or create richness for my interpretation of interaction, for example if a linguistic feature acts as a contextualization cue indexing pedagogical, social or any other functions relating teacher development.

Two particular definitions of code switching form a basis for my study. The first definition, by Valdés-Fallis (1978) sees code switching as "the alternating use of two languages at the word, phrase, clause, or sentence level" (p. 95). This definition covers the components of talk in which code switching occurs and I am interested analysing. The other definition is a more recent one by Nilep (2006), who argues that code switching is "the practice of selecting or altering linguistic elements so as

to contextualize talk in interaction” (p. 1). This definition represents the interactional aspect of code switching and how it relates to the conversation analytic approach I use by focusing on contextualizing the talk.

In the following sections, I discuss approaches to code switching studies in more detail in order to position my research more precisely within these.

2.1.2. Approaches to Code Switching Studies

Several approaches have been adopted in the study of code switching. After the emergence of the term ‘code switching’ in 1950s, studies following the sociolinguistic approaches (Blom and Gumperz, 1972; Myers and Scotton, 1998; McKay, 2005) evolved into the studies following pedagogical approaches (Martin-Jones, 1995; Flyman and Burenhult, 1999; Macaro, 2001; Seidlitz, 2003). Within the scope of these broad strands, various researchers suggested different definitions of the approaches to code switching. While some of these definitions can be regarded as similar to the general strands, some of them explain code switching in terms of different orientations using different terminology. Even though particular approaches do not directly relate to my study, it is still important to consider the effects of them on the evolution of the recent approaches.

One important distinction in code switching was made by Deckrow (2005), who distinguished between structural and sociolinguistic aspects. According to Deckrow (2005) the aim of the structural studies is to identify the grammatical constraints

during shift from one language to the other. On the other hand, sociolinguistic studies aim to look for the social conditions under which code switching occurs and the purpose of speaker in making one shift from one language to another (p. 31).

Similarly, Hurtado (2002) divides research on code switching into two different aspects: “research that focuses on form (linguistic, syntactic, and lexical) of code switching, and research that focuses on the functions (sociolinguistic: social and stylistic) of codeswitching” (p. 14).

Another similar categorization of approaches to code switching was suggested by Myers-Scotton (1998) as a morphosyntactic phenomenon or sociolinguistic phenomenon. Morphosyntactic based code switching research focuses on the grammar and syntax of code switching and belongs to the structural approaches to code switching. Coogan (2003) also asserts that the principal purpose of structural approaches is to find out how speakers join the two grammars of the different systems, and uncover the possible constraints that control the different switches; not mixing up two languages disorderly and randomly. In other words structural approaches refer to “the grammatical skills necessary to avoid making code switches that would go against the rules of either language” (Deckrow, 2005, p. 17). Sociolinguistic approaches, on the other hand, deal with the reasons why people switch codes in a conversation or discourse (Reyes, 2004). Myers and Scotton (1998) argue that the sociolinguistic approaches are the underpinning factors of structural features of code switching. Blom and Gumperz (1972) suggested two types of sociolinguistic code switching which are situational and metaphorical. The former

one stands for the language choice of speakers according to the situation, as the name suggests. The language choice is also related to the appropriateness for a particular situation, such choices being made at school, work, friends and family (Coogan, 2003).

In terms of the different approaches discussed, my study's position is closer to sociolinguistic orientation because I am interested in why code switching occurs and how it contributes to interaction in classroom rather than how it is linguistically structured. In the next section, I present detailed explanation of how conversational analytic approaches to code switching serve my study's purposes.

2.1.3. Conversation Analytic Approaches to Code Switching Studies

In recent years, there has been increasing amount of research carried out using conversation analysis to investigate code switching (Stroud, 1998). As mentioned earlier, Martin-Jones's (1995) identification of two strands of research into code switching constituted a foundation of the approaches taken in code switching studies. However, when it comes to the conversation analytic approaches, I believe it is worth mentioning Stroud's (1998) more recent classification of the research in conversational code switching. Stroud (1998) discusses the two groups of research in terms of the accounts of pragmatic and expressive meanings carried by switches. The first group of researchers consist of Gumperz (1982), Heller (1988), Hill and Hill (1986) and Myers-Scotton (1993). According to Stroud (1998), the principle characteristic of the first group is the social categorization of the social meanings of

conversational code switches which are “metaphorically symbolized by particular languages” (McConvell, 1994, p. 8 cited in Stroud, 1998). The ‘metaphorical symbolization’ was exemplified by Gumperz (1982) as the expression of solidarity, informality, compassion (the *we-code*), or formality, stiffness and distance (the *they-code*). The meaning attributed to the switches between the *we-code* and the *they-code* (original in italics) depends on juxtaposing the associations and identities belonging to these codes (Stroud, 1998), an approach rejected by CA researchers on the grounds that in situ construction of relevant identities are preferable to the ascription of categories determined a priori. However, combinations of the two are possible. A study by Liebscher and Dailey-O’Cain (2009), for example, benefits from the analytical approaches developed by Sacks et al. (1974) and Gumperz (1982) while analysing code switching using Auer’s (1998) conversation analysis framework. They argue that Sacks et al.’s and Gumperz’s framework allows them to “focus on details of the interaction such as hesitations, cut-offs and reformulations as meaningful in the interaction” (p. 133).

The second group of researchers (e.g. Wei, 1994; Moerman, 1989) practice conversation analysis and

question the primacy of macro-structural or societal contributions to the social meanings of code-switching, that particular languages stand as metaphors for, and see the meanings of code switching as emerging out of the sequential and negotiated development of conversational interaction (Stroud, 1998, p. 322)

Stroud (1998) further asserts that the studies applying conversation analysis focus on the context of the interaction produced *in situ* (original in italics), which allows access to the co-construction of meaning in the talk. Therefore, in conversation analytic approaches pre-determined typologies or patterns of interaction are avoided. This is because, as in other conversational strategies, the context in which code switching occurs determines the negotiation of the meaning of the interaction. The distinctions made by Stroud is important in terms of the approach I take towards the analysis of code switching in my study because the aims of my study involves “embedding code switching in the microdynamics of conversational interaction, and asking how participants attend structurally to code-switched utterances” and also “permitting an analysis of how a variety of social meanings are generated by interactants in the process of an orderly linguistic co-construction of contingent social structures” (Stroud, 1998, p. 322). In other words, this approach fits to my purposes because it involves analysing production of interaction *in situ*, examining code switching’s contribution to the interaction without drawing on pre-determined categories or patterns. It gives me the opportunity to construct my own understanding of the phenomena without clinging to imposed typologies.

Another important contribution to the conversation analytic approaches to code switching studies was made by Wei (2002), who agrees with Stroud that “the meanings carried by code switching are negotiated in the actual context in which they occur” (p. 322) and suggests two advantages conversation analysis approach has for those who are interested in the meaning of code switching.

It gives priority to what Auer calls the “sequential implicativeness of language choice in conversation” (1984, p. 6) which is the effect of a participant’s choice of language at a particular point in the conversation on a subsequent language choices by the same and other participants.

It limits the external analyst’s interpretational leeway because it relates his or her interpretation back to the members’ mutual understanding of their utterances as manifest in their behaviour

(Auer, 1984, p. 6 cited in Wei, 2002, p. 164).

The conversation analytic approach was developed to examine meaning construction in talk not “by attributing special meanings to the switches, and by assuming that speakers intend these meanings to be perceived by their listeners” (2002, p. 166) as the background of the bilingual research does, but, instead by focusing on local interpretations of what occurs in the talk. Wei (2002) explains this as follows:

Conversational analysis approach to code switching avoids the imposition of ‘analyst-oriented’ classificatory frameworks and instead attempts to reveal the underlying procedural apparatus by which conversation participants themselves arrive at local interpretations of language choice. In contrast to other existing theories of bilingual code-switching, the conversational analysis approach dispenses with motivational speculation in favour of an interpretative approach based on detailed, turn-by-turn analysis of language

choices. It is not about what bilingual conversationalists may do, or what they usually do, or even about what they see as the appropriate thing to do; rather, it is about how the meaning of code switching is constructed in interaction (pp. 166-167).

What distinguishes the conversation analytic approach from other sociolinguistic methods used to analyse code switching is that it aims to answer the following questions: “How do social actors come to know, and know in common, what they are doing, and what circumstances in which they are doing it?” (Wei, 2002, p. 162). In order to answer these questions, it adopts an interpretational inductive reasoning approach to the extracts of transcripts and tries to find evidence for how the speakers accomplish a task rather than paying attention to the variables that traditional sociolinguistic approaches considers such as gender, age, occupation or the formality of the context (Wei, 2002).

Wei (2002) further discusses two strands in conversation analysis studies. The first one is the ‘pure’ conversation analysis which deals with “the institution of interaction as an entity in its own right” (p. 163). The second one is ‘applied’ conversation analysis and focuses on “specific interactional situations, on local interactional requirements, and especially on the ways in which interactants show their orientations to these situations and requirements” (p. 163). The second strand, applied conversation analysis, seems to be the strand under which my study should be considered because I analyse code switching in its classroom context, recognising

the specific constraints that apply here. To obtain a broader view of this context is necessary to consider code switching studies in EFL classes in more detail.

2.1.4. Code Switching Studies in EFL Classes

There is an established steadily growing body of research on code switching in language classrooms (Auer, 1988; Adendorff, 1996; Lawson and Sachdev, 2000; Macaro, 2001; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002; Wei, 2002; Ferguson, 2003; Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain, 2005; Üstünel and Seedhouse, 2005; Lin, 2008; Xu, 2010). Early classroom code switching studies were mostly conducted in second language contexts (ESL classrooms) and bilingual education classrooms and followed quantitative approaches drawing on functional code analysis (Lin, 2008). Later studies on code switching in language classroom contexts, from the 1980s onwards, have drawn on more sociolinguistic research approaches such as interactional sociolinguistics, ethnography of communication (Goffman, 1974; Gumperz, 1982) conversation analysis (Sacks, 1992) and interpretive research paradigms (Lin, 2008; Macaro, 2001).

Ferguson's (2003) review of studies on code switching conducted in EFL classroom grouping them into three categories: "code switching for curriculum access, code switching for classroom management discourse, and code switching for interpersonal relations" (p. 39). The studies in the first category explore the negotiation of meaning making of classroom texts. The role of code switching is to provide knowledge to the students who have limited access to English resources.

The teacher's role is to provide a link between the text and the negotiation of meaning by clarifying meaning or encouraging student participation by code switching. An example of this sort of switching that might be relevant to my study would be where teachers switch codes to clarify meaning or "unpack the meaning", as Martin (1999, p. 53) refers to it. This could involve not only developing the comprehension of the students by giving Turkish equivalences of vocabulary but also helping to create a relationship with the text they are dealing with. The second categorization involves purposes such as motivating, disciplining and praising students, or signalling a change of footing. Ferguson (2003) quotes studies by Canagarajah (1995) and Lin (1996) in which code switching is used for an "'off lesson' concern – to discipline a pupil, to attend to latecomers, to gain and focus pupils' attention" (p. 42). In my study, I may also observe some usages of code switching to foster classroom management.

The last categorization focuses on the interpersonal relations where code switching is used to "humanise the affective climate of the classroom and to negotiate different identities" (p, 43). The purposes of this type of code switching are addressed more to the needs of classrooms including students from different ethnic backgrounds. As my study takes place in a classroom where every member is Turkish, I would not expect to see evidence of this sort of negotiation of identity, though there may be other aspects of identities that are relevant. However, using code switching to humanise the affective climate of the classroom could be an important aspect to explore in the classrooms in my study.

Another approach to code switching in EFL classrooms was noted by Morris (1997), who claims that there are six distinct considerations prompting code switching there:

1. Teachers' limited ability to speak the language they teach.
2. Beliefs that students are incapable of understanding the target language given because of their limited proficiency level in that language.
3. Students' low level of motivation.
4. Teachers' difficulty managing the class with target language use.
5. The intractability of certain teaching methods that privilege the use of mother tongue.
6. The profession's traditional emphasis on reading and translation at the expense of teaching for the development of the ability to communicate (p. 2)

While all of these might be relevant to my study, the most relevant ones might addressing student teachers' concerns about students' inability to understand the target language used and their use of code switching for classroom management. They might also have concerns about their own ability to use the target language.

In addition to the categories Ferguson (2003) suggests, another distinction relevant to code switching studies in EFL classrooms is related to target language and/or mother tongue usage, which are also referred to as L2 and L1 (Polio and Duff, 1994; Ferguson, 2003; Levine, 2003; Macaro, 2001, 2005; Üstünel and Seedhouse, 2005; Lin, 2008; Zabrodskaia, 2008). This distinction has emerged as a result of several studies

debating on the use of L1 and L2 in the classroom. In following sections I will discuss the studies opposing and supporting L1 use in EFL classrooms because it will enable me to position my own study in terms of the two strands ultimately negotiate the findings of my study in relation to them.

2.1.4.1. Approaches and Studies Opposing to Teachers' Switching to L1 in EFL Classrooms

In the EFL classroom, the importance of using the target language is generally accepted (Krashen, 1982); however whether L1 should be used in EFL classrooms or not remains disputable. In fact, the reluctance to use of the L1 in foreign language classrooms was introduced by the Direct Method at the end of nineteenth century and has lasted since then (Cook, 2001). The Direct Method is based on a simple rule: translation is not permitted at all, including teacher talk and the exercises used in the classroom by teacher. In addition to the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, which is an oral-based approach, also bans the L1 use in the classroom. This method also permits only the L2 in the classroom, aiming for a native-like competency by inhibiting the potential effects of the L1 on the L2 acquisition of students (Jingxia, 2010). The Direct Method's approach to the use of L1 in the classroom can be traced at The Natural Approach, suggested by Krashen and Terrell (1983, 2000), which has been rather influential. The Natural Approach identifies 'traditional' approaches to language teaching which provide natural communicative situations without referring to the language's grammar and formal studies of the language. According to Krashen and Terrell (1983, 2000) a conscious understanding

of grammar should not be considered as a prerequisite, therefore they suggested Asher's Total Physical Response, Lozanov's Suggestopedia and Curran's Community Language Learning on the grounds that communication-based approaches produced better results than traditional grammar-centred approaches. However, their view on the code choice in the classroom is in favour of the L2 in that "the instructor always uses the target language" (1983, p. 20). Despite their firm suggestion on the code choice of the teacher, they recommend that students should be allowed to use either the L1 or L2 until they feel comfortable using only the L2, which is the preferred output.

Following the employment of these methods in language classrooms, the importance of the use of L1 started to receive more recognition from researchers. The L2-only tradition excluding the L1 has been argued to limit "the possibilities of language teaching" (Cook, 2001, p. 405). According to Liu et al. (2004) the views about the use of L1 in L2 teaching are grouped into two major strands: the first one consists of those studies opposing code switching to L1 and using L2 exclusively in classroom, and the second comprises studies supporting using L1 to some extent. According to Sert (2005), "Many teachers, who are in favour of the applications of communicative techniques in the language teaching environment, oppose any form of native language use during classroom instruction" (p. 2). Similarly, Auerbach (1993) and Izumi (1995) state that even though most language teachers feel that it is almost impossible to avoid using L1 in the classroom, they also have the feeling of 'being ashamed of' using L1 because of 'English-only' policies dominating the classroom. Individual interviews on code switching conducted with the student

teachers in this study and the stimulated recall interviews allow me to explore the impact of the 'English only' policy mentioned by Auerbach (1993) and Izumi (1995) and to consider its 'dominance' or otherwise in the setting.

The opposition to using L1 in EFL classrooms is addressed as "the notion of exclusive TL (target language) use" by Levine (2003) and supported by researchers following the natural approach and communicative language teaching. A similar position adopted in the studies second language acquisition (SLA) and foreign language acquisition (FLA) which follow interactionist theories dealing with comprehensible input to foster acquisition (Long, 1985; Brooks, 1990; Gass, 1997; Ellis, 1999). Cook (2001), does not entirely subscribe to this position and favours using an approach designed to 'incorporate some form of code-switching', and nevertheless identifies three reasons for teachers not to switch to the L1. The first one is related to the first language learning process. The argument behind this view is summed up by Cook (2001) as being based on the view that it is "probably the way in which monolingual children acquire their first language" (p. 406). According to this view, if the children can acquire their L1 without relying on another language, acquisition of the L2 can follow the same procedure. The actual assumption behind this view is that if a L2 speaker does not have a native-like competence in the L2, then he/she cannot be regarded as a successful learner of the target language (Towell and Hawkins, 1994). The second reason is related to the classification: "Successful second language acquisition depends on keeping the second language separate from the first one" (p. 407). Cook (2001) summarizes this argument on the grounds of language compartmentalisation based on coordinate

bilingualism, where the mind forms two different systems for language acquisition. According to Cook (2001) this view is doomed to fail as L2 meanings do not function in isolation from the L1. The third one comes from the second language use in the classroom: "The teacher can maximize the use of second language examples by avoiding the first language" (p. 408). This avoidance can provide students with the opportunity to experience the L2 within its social contexts through interaction.

Another argument put forward by researchers opposing switching to L1 in EFL classrooms is based on the importance of "speaking and using English in the classroom as often as you possibly can" (Willis, 1981). This argument is also expressed as "maximizing the teacher's use of the TL in the classroom" (Turnbull, 2001 cited in Turnbull and Arnett, 2002, p. 205). The maximization of target language in EFL classroom is regarded as a 'reasonable' practice because the teachers are "often the students' primary source of linguistic input on the TL" (Turnbull and Arnett, 2002, p. 205). However; what exactly counts as 'maximization' of the L2 has become a topic of discussion. Eventually, researchers such as Ellis (1994) and Sharwood-Smith (1985) noted that sole target language exposure might not necessarily lead to internalization of the target language. As an alternative to Ellis's (1994) and Sharwood-Smith's (1985) arguments, Long (1996) argued that in order for the students to internalize target language, they should be able to interact and communicate the input, which would provide 'maximization' of target language usage in EFL classrooms. Later on, Swain (1995) claimed that in addition to interaction in class with target language input, students should also be given the opportunity to produce written or spoken forms in the target language. Duff and

Polio (1990, 1994) also assert that “as much language as possible serving as many functions as possible should be presented in the L2 in order to promote acquisition” (p. 154). MacDonald (1993, cited in Turnbull, 2002, p. 206) supports Duff and Polio (1990, 1994), but approaches the issue in terms of student motivation and claims that “relying too much in the L1 can lead to de-motivation; if the teacher overuses the L1 to convey meaningful information, the students have no immediate need to further their understanding in the TL”.

Common to all these studies opposing switching to the L1 in EFL classrooms seems to be the assumption that students can best develop confidence in the L2 by maximizing L2 usage, in some cases ignoring L1 completely. In terms of my study context, there is no official instruction imposing a particular language choice on the student teachers in the university by their tutors, and neither is there any official requirement in the school where they conducted the Teaching Practice lessons. However, the attitudes of their tutors and the supervising teachers at the schools they taught may well have an effect on their way of practicing in lessons, which might be revealed in interviews and the stimulated recall interviews.

2.1.4.2. Approaches and Studies Supporting Teachers’ Switching to L1 in EFL Classrooms

As discussed in the previous section, “the exclusive use of the target language by teachers in the foreign language (FL) classroom is a strong principle advocated by teaching methodologies, notably the communicative approach to language

teaching” (Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002, p. 403). This might account for the situation described by Atkinson (1987): “the role of the mother tongue in monolingual classes is a topic which is often ignored in discussions of methodology and in teacher training” (p. 241). Nevertheless, more recent research reveals that switching to L1 could have benefits for language teaching (Atkinson, 1987; Eldridge, 1996; Macaro, 2001, 2005; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002; Rolin-Ianziti and Brownlie, 2002; Levine, 2003; Xu, 2010, Levine, 2011; Levine, 2014). The claim of these researchers is that careful and limited use of the L1 should be carefully considered and instead of an either/or attitude to L1 use, the answers to more constructive questions such as ‘what for’, ‘when’ or ‘to what extent’ should be explored (Gabrielatos, 2001). In line with Gabrielatos’s (2001) suggestion, Cook (2001) favours incorporating ‘some form of code-switching’ - because he believes code switching is a natural phenomenon and teachers should not discourage students from using it. He argues that the maximization of L2 in the classroom should not be interpreted as meaning that the L1 should be avoided altogether and that, in fact, “the long-held tradition of discouraging the integration of the L1 in the TL classroom has sharply limited the possibilities of language teaching” (p. 405). Similarly, van Lier (1995) states that the encouragement for students’ L1 uses by teachers would provide more salient input for the learner. Levine (2011) also argues that the language classroom is a ‘multilingual environment’ because “for each learner, at least two languages are involved in the L2 learning process” (p. 5). He further suggests that a substantial body of research increasingly accept the multilingual environment mentioned and a multilingual approach should be developed in order to examine language classroom communication.

Macaro (1997, 2001, 2005) is one of the researchers who is opposed to L2-only classes on the basis that the use of the L1 is a natural practice in L2 learning and teaching as well as being a more time efficient strategy than using only the target language, which is a point also made by Atkinson (1987). In a study which aimed to investigate the usage of L2 and L1 by experienced, beginning and student teachers of foreign languages in England and Wales, Macaro (1997) made use of surveys, semi-structured interviews and classroom observation. The results revealed the L1 was used predominantly to give or clarify instructions, for translating and checking comprehension and lastly to give feedback, all of which are essential actions in the classroom. In the same study, Macaro also explored teachers' beliefs and attitudes on L1 and L2 use. He reported that most of the teachers believed that it was impossible to create a 'L1-free' classroom except with highly motivated classes. A majority of teachers also pointed out the usefulness and importance of the L2 for giving basic instructions and they used L1 for classroom management, covering grammatical rules and developing social relationship with the students. The use of interviews and stimulated recall in my own study will allow an exploration of teacher views as expressed in general terms and also as prompted by a consideration of aspects of their own pedagogic practice.

In another paper, Macaro (2005) concludes that "many teachers report feeling guilty when they resort to the L1. This is not a healthy outcome of a pedagogical debate" (p. 69). In his article in which she discussed L1 use in the L2 classroom, Edstrom (2006) directly addresses the guilty feeling Macaro mentions:

On a personal level, both my experience as a language learner and my training as linguist have convinced me of the need to maximize L2 use in the language classroom, yet my beliefs are not always reflected in my practice... The inconsistency between what I believe and what I do is further complicated by the fact that I do not know what I do... On the other hand, I am also disturbed by any unqualified assumption that avoidance of the L1 is synonymous with good teaching. At times I have felt ridiculous trying to avoid English at all costs in my Spanish classes. (p. 276)

Edstrom (2006) perfectly describes the reluctance of teachers to use L1 in language classrooms. In terms of consequences, Macaro (2005) further notes that this feeling of guilt means that teachers find it hard to employ particular activities or practices, in some cases even avoiding the use of them completely, which he finds 'unhealthy' in terms of the pedagogical results. One of these practices is avoiding translation in the classroom. Macaro (2005) asserts that "banning translation from the L2 classroom deprives learners of the possibility of developing a valuable language skill that they are very likely to need in the outside world, particularly the world of work" (p. 75). Another point Macaro (2005) makes is that teachers who do not switch to the L1 find it hard to practice pre-listening activities which are also related to the main listening activity. In the listening activity, students are likely to hear new language items in the aural text. Macaro (2005) argues that if teachers make use of some L1 during pre-listening activities, this will "prepare their [students'] minds for the in-coming L2" and eventually result in a quality L2 intake. He quotes Prabhu (1987), Di Pietro (1987) and Shekan (1998) in support of the claim that teachers

avoiding code switching “tend to shy away from the kind of task-based learning” because of the “difficulty of setting them up entirely in the L2” (p. 76). Therefore, such teachers prefer more repetitive, standardised and behaviourist tasks – presentation, practice and production type (PPP) – which do not require complex L2 usage. This potentially narrows down the range of classroom activities and is detrimental to opportunities to take advantage of those activities in the classroom. Similarly, Levine (2011) argues that maximal or optimal use of the L2 might not always result in desirable language acquisition for students:

I believe to be the code choice ‘status quo’ of many typical communicative-approach language classrooms, and here it will be evident that even when most of a class is conducted in the L2, we cannot say that the L2 was used optimally or maximally, in part (but not only) because teachers tend to do most of the talking! (p. 7).

However strong they might seem, I find Levine’s suggestions potentially relevant to my study because if L2-only proves to be the status quo for the student teachers involved, the discovery of teacher dominance would represent an opportunity to challenge taken-for-granted assumptions through stimulated recall. In addition, Levine further lists five myths about first language use in second language classroom of which the following are relevant to my study:

- Monolingual second language use is the most intuitive mode of communication in the language classroom.

- A monolingual approach reflects the reality of language classroom communication.
- Use of the first language minimizes time spent using the second language.

According to Levine (2011), the first myth is the belief mostly held in American educational thought and policy. It is assumed that a monolingual classroom is “the most intuitive and natural, something to be taken for granted, the starting point for pedagogical choices that follow from it” (p. 10). Levine considers this argument as a myth mainly because of the limitations it brings to the content of language lessons. He agrees this approach might keep the process simple for teachers and students linguistically, yet it limits the humanistic connotations language acquisition requires, ignores the potential possibilities and varieties learners can benefit by using both languages and limits the ability of thinking if encountered in a non-monolingual language learning environment.

Levine’s second myth regards the monolingual classroom communication as an illusory perspective, quoting the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) as “ACTFL...recommends that language educators and their students use the target language as exclusively as possible (90% plus) during instructional time” (ACTFL, 2008 quoted in Levine, 2011, p. 14). The third myth is that the use of the first language minimizes the time spent on the second language. Levine points out a valid concern shared by teachers in terms of the time devoted to the L2 in classroom. Teachers mostly think using L1 reduces the time which should be used to expose students to the L2, which is already scarce. He also addresses the

belief most teachers have about code switching, also expressed by Macaro (2001, 2009): "...concern is coupled with the powerful popular belief that code switching, or use of more than one language in a sentence or conversation, is an aberration from normal conversation, something to be avoided" (p. 16). Against this notion, he argues that the studies he conducted reveal that the use of two or more codes in language classroom is not only natural but also a norm in almost all language classrooms. If, as Levine and Macaro suggest, these concerns and beliefs are common amongst teachers, they might also be reflected by student teachers in my study and might be relevant to their choices and acts in the classroom affecting the interaction there.

In addition to the Macaro's and Levine's suggestions, Atkinson (1987) also points to several advantages of using the L1 in the EFL classroom. The first one is that "translation techniques form part of the preferred learning strategies of most learners in most places" (p. 242). This does not necessarily mean that translation should constitute a considerable portion of the lesson but as Macaro (2005) notes "it could be argued that judicious use by teacher of code switching is a way of modelling, in an implicit way, judicious dictionary use whilst at the same time lightening the cognitive load ... inferencing in the spoken medium" (p. 75). Secondly, using the L1 enables both teachers and the students to say what they really *want* (original in italics) to say. Atkinson (1987) claims this helps teachers to encourage students to find a way to express themselves regardless of the language students use and therefore, helps them out to speak the target language. In another paper, Atkinson (1993) discusses several necessary and unnecessary roles of the L1

especially for low level EFL classrooms. The necessary roles are “lead-ins, giving instructions, checking comprehension” and the unnecessary roles are using the L1 “in drills, at listening stage, correction, personalization, creativity stage and games” (pp. 25-38). In line with Atkinson, Cook (2001) describes several situations in which switching to L1 might be necessary. According to him, teachers could switch to the L1 if it is obvious that insisting on using the L2 would be inefficient or discouraging for the student. He also suggests using the L1 while introducing grammar topics, achieving classroom management, organizing tasks, implementing tests; in short whenever “the cost of the TL is too great” (p. 418). The points made by Atkinson and Cook are important in terms of describing the roles of the L1 use which might be observed in the lessons and reflected in the views of the student teachers in my study.

Nizgorodcew (1996) has an approach to the L1 use in the EFL classroom in terms of its providing security and comfort to students. In an environment where everybody could speak the same mother tongue, Nizgorodcew (1996) suggests addressing a student in the L1, which can contribute to feeling comfortable towards the task students are expected to fulfil and also feeling secure during the lesson.

Overall, it is clear that there is no clear cut agreement on the advantages and/or disadvantages of switching to the L1 in EFL classrooms. However, my study does not directly rely on the benefits or problems of switching to the L1; it rather tries to reveal how switching to the L1 contributes to the pedagogic activity in the classroom, and how this might bear on aspects of the student teachers’ identities.. In

line with this, my standpoint is closer to the researchers who are in favour of code switching in EFL classrooms and regard it as a natural phenomenon to be benefited from for the sake of quality interaction in classroom and its potential implications to the teacher training curriculum.

I now turn to the studies on code switching conducted in Turkish settings.

2.1.5. Code Switching Studies in Turkish EFL Setting

The studies on Turkish students' code switching have mostly been conducted in bilingual classroom contexts outside Turkey, especially in European countries such as Germany, Netherlands, Norway and Denmark. These studies also had some social and cultural implications and drew on outside-classroom practices as well. For instance, Treffers-Daller (1998) studies the variability in code switching styles in Turkish-German students and identified the code switching patterns of those students. In other studies by Jorgensen (2003) Turkish speaking youngsters' bilingual behaviours in Germany and Denmark are investigated. The findings reveal that the language use of Turkish students' does not differ from their German or Danish peers; however it is also noted that code switching has social applications for those students. This means they switch codes to express solidarity and use it in order to 'criticize' social situation they come across.

There have been a number of studies on code switching conducted in Turkish L2 settings. To my knowledge, the earliest study is that of Eldridge (1996). He

investigates the code switching of young learners in a Turkish secondary school and opposes the assumption of that restricting the mother tongue is productive and related to pedagogical goals. He recorded lessons and outlined 100 instances of code switching. The analysis revealed that the students switched codes to provide equivalence, for floor-holding, metalanguage, reiteration, group membership, conflict control and alignment and disalignment. The study suggests that code switching in the classroom is a highly natural and purposeful phenomenon and argues that an increase or decrease in the amount of L1 does not address the problem of the quality of L2 production in language classrooms.

Another study within a L2 context is a doctoral study conducted by Üstünel (2004). The study focuses on the sequential organization of teacher-initiated and teacher-induced code switching in a Turkish university EFL setting. It also aims to explore the relationship between pedagogical focus and language choice in the EFL classroom. For this purpose, Üstünel (2004) collected data by means of classroom observation based on audio and video taping of six beginner level English classrooms. The data were analysed using discourse analysis of functions and the conversation analysis method of sequential analysis. The results and implications of the study reveal that code switching in the classrooms has twelve pedagogical functions, namely dealing with procedural trouble, dealing with classroom discipline, expressing the social identity, giving Turkish equivalents, translating into Turkish, dealing with lack of response in English, providing a prompt for English use, eliciting Turkish or English translation, giving feedback, checking comprehension in English, providing meta-language information, and giving

encouragement to participate. The study also describes a systematic organization pattern which results in teachers' code switching designed to repair trouble. The implications of the study include the fact that code switching to the L1 is inevitable and cannot be ignored and that the use of L1 in L2 teaching and learning should be embedded in teaching methods.

A third study on code switching in a Turkish setting is a Masters dissertation study conducted by Moran (2009). The study focuses on the situations in which teachers switch to the L1 and identifies the functions of these switches in relation to the determination of the effects of teacher-related variables such as educational background and teaching experiences, and to classroom-related variables such as type of the lesson and class level. The study adopted a mixed methodology by making use of both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Data collection was done by means of a demographic survey, classroom observations and teacher interviews. The application of a demographic survey was followed by videotaping of one hour of teaching of 24 teachers. Interviews followed the classroom observations to explore the awareness of teachers with regard to their code switching during the lessons. The analysis of the data involved statistical analyses and the results revealed four broad categories of code switching: curriculum access, classroom management, interpersonal relations and other reasons. The class level also emerged as an important factor in terms of affecting the amount of code switching; for instance, intermediate level class teachers did more code switching than the elementary level class teachers.

It is clear that code switching in Turkish EFL settings remains a relatively unexplored area in terms of the amount of research conducted. This situation points to a particularly large research gap. The studies mentioned above have made significant contribution to our understanding of the nature of code switching in Turkish classrooms. However, my study stands in a slightly different position in relation to them. For instance, Eldridge's (1996) study only focuses on learner talk. My study, however, focuses both on teachers' and students' talk in interaction in classroom. Üstünel's (2004) study has common ground with my study in terms of the focus (teacher and student talk) and the methodology (conversation analysis). However, Üstünel focuses on the sequential organization of the teacher initiated talk only and makes use of interactional organization patterns such as adjacency pairs, repair and turn taking. In my study I do not rely on predetermined patterns of interaction as Üstünel did. In fact, I expect the patterns of interaction to emerge from the data and I do not aim to restrict this emergence to the predetermined patterns. After all, my aim is to describe the contribution to the talk in class. In addition, Üstünel analyses functions of talk in classroom with discourse analysis. In my study I do not make use of discourse analysis while analysing the talk. Moren (2009) also examines the functions of teacher code switching and relates these functions to the educational and teaching backgrounds of the teachers.

My study's originality lies in several features relating to the settings, the procedure and the methodologies used. First of all, I worked with student teachers who had not had teaching experience in a natural classroom environment until the 'Teaching Practice' class they had during the last term of their senior year. The setting in my

study is the school student teachers are teaching. The private school is obviously important because the classroom observations took place there and apart from the Eldridge's (1996) study, which only focused on learner talk, there is no study conducted on code switching in elementary or secondary schools. Both Üstünel's and Moren's study were conducted in universities' English preparation classrooms. When it comes to the methodology, in addition to the classroom observations and interviews used in the other studies, I used stimulated recall in order to identify underlying feelings, ideas and motivations of student teachers on occasions of code switching instead of relying on my own interpretations only. I present the findings I obtained from stimulated recall interviews as an analytic resource to explore and include student teachers' views of their use of code switching. In addition to these, I video-recorded every student teacher four times (one student teacher for five times), which gave me the chance to observe continuous and diverse code switching behaviours. Most importantly, by analysing classroom interaction and linking this to trainee teacher beliefs and pedagogic decisions, I aim to reveal the contribution of code switching to the interaction in EFL classrooms and its relation to beliefs about teaching methods and approaches, which means that it with the potential to make a contribution to teacher training or mentoring.

2.2. Teacher Training

In this study, all of the participants are senior student teachers. Therefore, in this section I will discuss second language teacher training.

2.2.1. Second Language Teacher Training and Education

“In total, two billion people worldwide will be learning English by 2020...The English language, like football and other sports, began here and has spread to every corner of the globe.”

–Gordon Brown, 2008 – Former UK Prime Minister

According to Phillipson (1992) and Crystal (1997), the English language has achieved worldwide dominance. This dominance has created the need for both learning and teaching English all over the world because as Burns and Richards (2009) put it, “the English language skills of a good proportion of its citizenry are seen as vital of a country is to participate actively in the global economy”, enabling speakers “to have access to the information and knowledge that provide the basis for both social and economic development” (p. 1). Consequently this calls for more efficient English teachers and “far more effective approaches to their preparation and professional development” (Burns and Richards, 2009, p. 1).

In line with the demand, the process of teacher preparation in EFL has become multifaceted. For example, what ‘teacher training’ and ‘teacher education’ stand for has been the subject of an ongoing discussion. While ‘training’ is used for training new teachers, the term ‘teacher education’ is also used for some specific courses (Smith, 2006) despite having a much broader scope. In an effort to clarify the distinction, Pugsley (1998) states that both training and education are necessary for a teacher in that more mechanical and methodological qualities can be obtained

through training and some other qualities which “allow the teacher to deal with deviation from the stereotype” (p. 1) can be mastered through education. In this study I will refer to the teacher development process as ‘teacher training’ in order to draw attention to the fact that the participants are pre-service teachers, although my underlying assumption will be that both training and education are equally important.

Recently, the discussion of the relationship between training and education has been replaced by the qualities and nature of teacher learning, “which is viewed as a form of socialization into the professional thinking and practices of a community of practice” (Burns and Richards, 2009, p. 2). This shift is also noted by Velez-Rendon (2002):

The field of second/foreign language teacher education seems to have moved from a transmission approach of acquainting prospective teachers with classroom techniques and skills to approach in which the prospective teachers develop their own philosophy of foreign language teaching and become reflective of their own learning-to-teach processes. (p. 459)

It can be inferred that second language teacher training process has become a combination of methodological and self-developmental approaches in which student teachers can construct their own philosophy of teaching. Teacher training programmes draw on sociocultural theory (Lantolf, 2000) and teacher cognition (Borg, 2003) along with the ‘external factors’ which involve “the need to respond to the status of English as an international language” (Burns and Richards, 2009, p. 2).

From the 1990s and onwards second language teacher training “included not simply *what* teachers needed to learn, but increasingly *how* (original in italics) they would learn it” (Freeman, 2009, p. 13). The importance of teachers’ engagement in the professional training process has been expressed by researchers working in the field such as Freeman and Richards (1996) and Woods (1996). According to Freeman (2009) this changed the definition of language teacher training in three aspects. Firstly, the boundaries of the profession were redefined because “the activity itself was labelled” (p. 13). Secondly, ‘an independent research base’ for teacher training started to develop and thirdly the potential varieties for the scope of research were introduced. The main concern of my study can also be situated within the scope of the alternative conceptions introduced to language teacher research because it aims to reveal the contribution of an interaction phenomenon (code switching) to the interaction in the classroom by making use of analysing the professional environment where student teachers are practising teaching. Another concern related to these discussions in my study might be the philosophies of student teachers pointed to by Velez-Rendon (2002).

Having introduced the importance of second language training development, I will now present the impact of teaching experience in second language teacher training because it is the process in which student teachers have the opportunity to see to what extent they can implement their ideal professional selves in real classroom environment.

2.2.1.1 The Importance of Teaching Practice in Second Language Teacher Training

The data for this study were obtained while student teachers were carrying out teaching tasks within Teaching Practice lesson. Therefore, I think it is necessary to address the importance of teaching practice – or Practicum as it is called in the literature from the United States.

The realisation of the importance of teaching practice goes in line with a change in perspectives on teacher training content. Historically speaking, a shift has taken place “from behaviourist to cognitive to situated, social, and distributed views of human cognition” (Johnson, 2009, p. 20). Within the boundaries of the shift from behaviourist to cognitive and social approaches, teacher training programmes have included and developed teaching practice lessons with the purpose of engaging student teachers in practice. Graves (2009) states that the engagement process has two dimensions: firstly it includes classroom practices in order to provide “opportunities to observe teaching, to prepare for teaching, to teach, to reflect on it, to analyse it, and thus to learn it/from it” (p. 118). Secondly, it includes “participating in communities for practice” (p. 118). Participating in communities attends to the roles of teaching within the social and cultural context where it is performed. Teaching not only means ‘teaching’ in the actual teaching contexts but has implications for society and student teachers should be made aware of this during the teaching practice (Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Sharkey, 2004). In my study, student teachers were mostly engaged with classroom practices. During the

first term of the senior year, they observed the teacher teaching in the classroom and were expected to reflect their thoughts on each class they observed. In the second term, however, they were expected to prepare for the lesson, teach and reflect their experience to the tutor as well as to their fellow classmates. Thus, learning from their own experiences is the main concern of the teaching practice lesson, in addition to the experience of teaching. This does not mean that the wider societal context is unimportant, only that it is at best secondary to my interest, which lies in the conduct of the lessons themselves.

The issues I have discussed so far are mostly related to technical side of teacher development in relation to code switching which forms a foundation to a broader question that needs to be answered in more detail: What is going on inside student teachers' heads while they are performing these actions? In the next sections I present a discussion on teacher cognition, beliefs, identity/self and agency.

2.2.2 Teacher Cognition

In this section I discuss teacher cognition briefly because it does not constitute a central dimension in my thesis. However, issues related to teacher cognition need to be addressed as my research elicits teachers' beliefs and their views on their classroom thinking. Therefore, it is necessary to provide a broader context on these issues in order to clarify my own position.

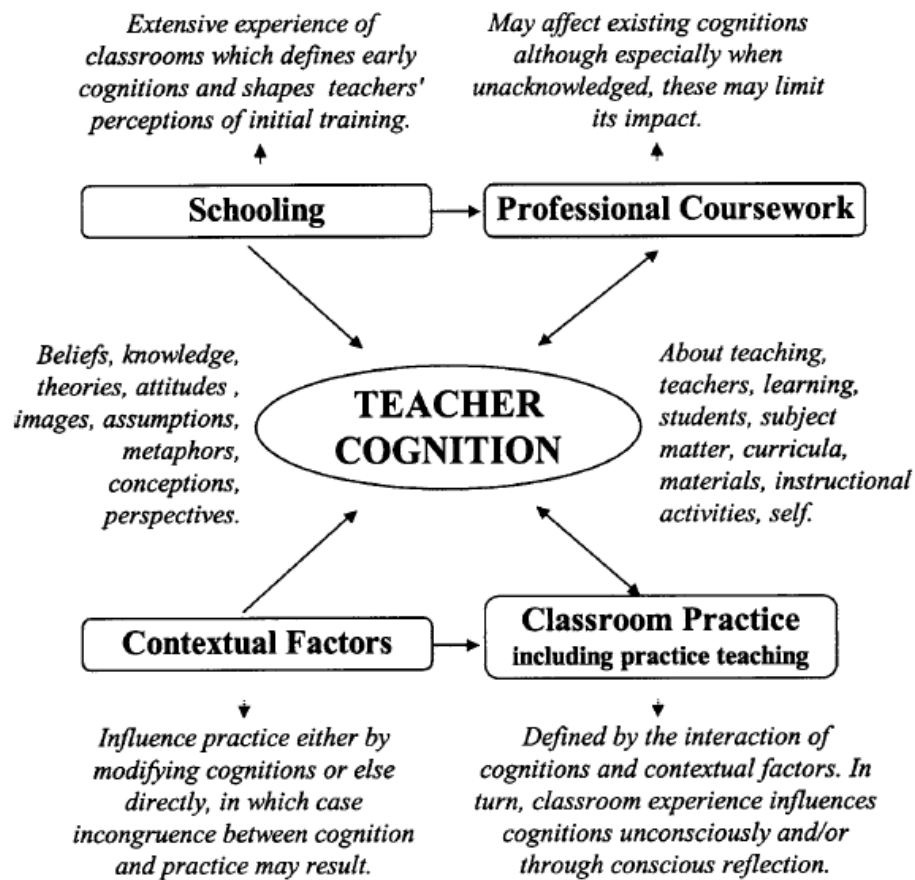
The evolution of teaching as a skill has been a topic of research since the mid-60s; however the research paradigm has shifted from a more quantitative tradition which involved working with large groups of teachers and aimed to observe long-term consequences of the teaching methods and programmes to a more qualitative tradition which aims to break down teacher behaviours according to their cognitions, beliefs and other mental factors (Calderhead, 1990, Carter, 1990; Richardson, 1990; Kagan, 1992; Fang, 1996; Borg, 2003; Zheng, 2009).

According to Clark and Peterson (1986), there are two major domains of the teaching process. These are teachers' thought processes (i.e. teacher cognition) and teachers' actions and their observable effects. What is meant by teachers' thought processes are the things that occur in teachers' minds. According to Fang (1996), the phenomena involved in the teacher action domain include "teacher behaviour, student behaviour and student achievement scores" (p. 48). It can be inferred that the way teachers think affects the classroom experiences of teachers. This view is also supported by Kagan (1988) and Shulman (1986) who claim that "examinations of how teachers think about what they do have helped to demonstrate that teaching is more than behaviour" (p. 221); it is indeed a "thoughtful work" (Freeman, 1990).

According to Clark (1992), the nature of teaching can be understood through research on teachers' thinking. Borg (2003) argues that language teacher cognition research has gained recognition in educational research since the end of 70s. He notes, "I use the term teacher cognition to refer to the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching-what teachers know, believe and think" (2003, p. 81). Borg

further mentions several reviews on teacher cognition conducted by Calderhead (1996), Carter (1990), Fenstermacher (1994), Richardson (1996), Verloop, Van Driel and Meijer (2001) which reveal that “teachers are active, thinking decision-makers who make instructional choices by drawing on complex, practically-oriented, personalised, and context-sensitive networks of knowledge, thoughts and beliefs” (2003, p. 81). This argument is in line with my research in that the student teachers make personalised decisions within the boundaries they meet whether stemming from the context they teach, their own English knowledge and/or the impact of their supervisor teachers. They are constantly active in terms of being sensitive to their own beliefs about teaching and also what their students actually need in the classroom. While doing that, they try to meet the expectations of their supervisors and tutor, which requires a complex network of thinking. Borg’s (2003) representation of the importance of teacher cognition and thinking in classroom practice might be useful to understand these networks:

Figure 1. Teacher cognition, schooling, professional education, and classroom practice (Borg 1997)



(Resource: Borg, 2003, p. 82)

The conceptualization of teacher cognition in Figure 1 addresses several issues that are likely to be relevant to my research. Schooling, for instance, is likely to affect the student teachers' thinking processes in that the classrooms that they teach in are the first real teaching environment they find themselves in as teachers – though not as students. They will almost inevitably hold particular beliefs, knowledge, theories, attitudes, images, assumptions and conceptions on how their teaching experience is going to be and these might become evident as I explore the reasons for their code switching behaviours with them. In my research, code switching is at the core of all

these concepts and the practice of code switching plays an important role in professional coursework and classroom practice. The student teachers may have prior beliefs on code switching derived in part from their experiences as students and these beliefs are likely to affect how they approach the subject matter they teach, how their teaching activities are shaped and possibly also their image of self as a teacher. Their teaching practice is inevitably shaped around these thinking processes. In Figure 1 the only factor not mentioned directly that is likely to be the factor in my research is the effect of the supervisor, which is an important aspect contributing to the student teachers' thinking process.

The research on teachers' thought processes has shown that it is important to understand how teachers think in order to analyse the reasons why teachers act the way they do. As Richards and Lockhart (1994) put it:

what teachers do is a reflection of what they know and believe, and...teacher knowledge and "teacher thinking" provide the underlying framework or schema which guides the teacher's classroom actions.

(p. 29)

The present study aims to understand how the student teachers' thinking processes affect their judgements, actions and beliefs before, while and after the teaching. The student teachers will be invited to express their opinions about what an ideal lesson should include in terms of the language choice and how some of their thoughts relate to those of their supervisor teachers on approaches to teaching. More

importantly, because their actions and behaviours will be shaped according to their thought processes, these thought processes will have tangible consequences in terms of the teaching process in the classrooms.

The underlying factors affecting these thought processes have been investigated in different areas. These areas include the importance of prior language learning experiences of the student teachers (Hayes, 2009; Borg, 2003; Farrell, 1999; Golombek, 1998; Numrich, 1996) and practice in language teaching (Mattheoudakis, 2007; Basturkmen, et. al., 2004; Borg, 1999; Woods, 1996; Johnson, 1994). For instance, Johnson (1994) shows how student teachers are influenced by their own language learning experiences while they are making instructional decisions in that the materials they use, the activities they implement, the classroom experiences and the image they have in their minds may all be based on their experience of their own language teachers. In the context of my study, it is likely that I will encounter such experiences with the student teachers involved.

Another important area to discuss in order to understand teacher cognition is the effect of teaching practice. Borg (2003) argues that the body of research shows that teaching practices of student teachers are based on various interacting and conflicting factors. He also notes that even though the student teachers' cognitions affect their practices while teaching, they do not necessarily represent their actual beliefs, self-images as teachers, identities and pedagogical choices, all of which are entwined with their personal ideas on teaching. These cognitions might have influenced the practice of code switching behaviours of the classroom practices of

my student teachers. Therefore, in the next section I discuss the student teacher beliefs, identities and self and how these might help us to understand the role of code switching in more detail.

2.2.1.1. Teacher Beliefs

Teacher beliefs and their effects on teaching practice is a widely studied area in teacher cognition (Thompson, 1992; Calderhead, 1996). There are various definitions of the term 'belief' presented in the table below which will help me to position what I might encounter when analysing the data for my study:

Borg, M. (2001)	Belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behaviour (p. 186)
Brown and Cooney (1982)	Beliefs are dispositions to action and major determinants of behaviour, although the dispositions are time and context specific.
Sigel (1985)	Beliefs are mental constructions of experience-often condensed and

	integrated into schemata or concepts (p. 351).
Richards (1998)	Teacher beliefs form a structured set of principles that are derived from experience, school practice, personality, education theory, reading, and other sources. (p. 66-67)
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Table 1. Definitions of Teacher's Beliefs

The definitions above cover the general factors that shape teachers beliefs and it can be argued that I have included the ones that reflect how they influence the behaviour of the teachers in practice. The reason for this is the behaviours of the teachers are the results of the belief systems that teachers build up over time and consequently influence their actions in the classroom. Richards (1998) notes that teachers' belief systems are primary sources of teachers' classroom practices as they represent the "information, attitudes, values, expectations, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning." (p. 66). Similarly, a study by Burns (1992) revealed that teachers beliefs influence the approach to language teaching and their instructional practices with reference to the affective reasoning and their own image as teachers in the classrooms:

The establishment of positive and non-threatening classroom "dynamics" was considered to be a crucial element of the language classroom. Teachers saw themselves as having a central role and responsibility in facilitating good relationships among students and between themselves and their students. This represents "the mirror image" of the concern with affective learning factors and is viewed as an essential contribution to such things as

building confidence, making learners feel “comfortable” and “at ease”, lessening their passivity and helping them to relate positively to each other.

(p. 62)

In my study, my main focus is not to investigate teacher beliefs; however Burns' account above might be useful in helping to understand the actions of my student teachers in terms of their affective considerations and how they see themselves as teachers. As code switching is a behaviour performed in the classroom, it would be necessary to identify its relationship to teacher beliefs through the observation of similarities and differences among my student teachers in their teaching. Woods (1991) and Johnson (1991) carried out studies investigating how the beliefs affect teachers' instructional decisions in the classroom. Johnson identified three methodological positions: a skills-based approach, a rules-based approach and a function based approach. The skill-based approach focuses on the four language skills and the main purpose is to practice skill acquisition. The rules-based approach refers to employment of activities that aims to reinforce grammatical structures. The function-based approach aims to elicit communicative language use in the classroom using authentic materials benefiting from social contexts in which the target language is used. Even though they may not express them in exactly as the way Johnson, the student teachers in my study may adopt these approaches, which may be linked to patterns in their code switching behaviour.

The other study on the relationship between teacher beliefs and teaching practice that might shed a light on my understanding is a longitudinal study by Woods

(1991) which revealed that teachers have curriculum-based views and student-based views. The teachers who hold curriculum-based views benefit heavily from the pre-planned activities identified in the curriculum and the lessons are mainly shaped around these pre-determined spheres of instructions. The teachers who hold student-based views, however, focus on the needs of a particular group of students and the decisions are made according to the context of the lesson. The curriculum is still there to guide the teacher but the instruction could be modified or reinterpreted according to the student responses. In terms of code switching, this distinction might be useful while interpreting what kind of a view a student teacher might have. As code switching requires dynamic decision making in terms of the language choice, it can give us hints about the teachers' beliefs and display how these affect their instruction. Since this raises the broader issue of student teacher beliefs, I now turn to a consideration of these.

2.2.1.2. Student Teachers' Beliefs

The findings on research of teachers' beliefs has been considered an important aspect of constructing teacher education programmes as it is believed that these beliefs have a major role in the development of student teachers, pedagogically and professionally (Pajares, 1992; Woolfolk Hoy, Davis and Pape, 2006; Zheng, 2009). Initial studies focusing on teachers' beliefs investigated various factors affecting teachers' decision making processes; however, the role of the different beliefs in teacher education required a more detailed network of beliefs that shaped the student teachers' future teaching practices (Shulman, 1986; Zheng, 2009). Research

on student teacher beliefs indicates that these teachers bring particular beliefs and ideas into the teaching programme which has an effect on their knowledge construction and approach they follow during the teaching practice (Kagan, 1992, Pajares, 1992; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Mattheoudakis, 2007). The question is what are these beliefs that student teachers hold and how can code switching be positioned in relation to them?

There is a significant body of research investigating student teacher beliefs and particular themes and a number of areas have emerged from this as being of particular interest. For instance Calderhead (1996) suggested areas of student teachers' beliefs in terms of the beliefs about EFL learners and EFL learning, beliefs about EFL teaching, beliefs about subject matter and pedagogical knowledge, beliefs about self and beliefs about professional development. In terms of beliefs about the learners and learning, if a student teacher believes that vocabulary learning is the most significant part of language learning, his/her instruction is likely to build around this belief (Horwitz, 1988; Zheng, 2009). Similarly a student teacher might believe that a learner's role is to follow instructions, and speak only when they are asked by the teacher (Zheng, 2009).

Student teachers' beliefs about teaching are another potentially relevant dimension. Zheng (2009) argues that "people hold different conceptual orientations towards teaching and the role of teachers. Some teachers may regard language teaching as process of information transmission while others think of the teacher as a facilitator of language learning" (p. 76). This view is in line with the categorization Woods

(1991) has suggested in terms of the student and teacher based views. Moreover, beliefs about EFL involve the methodology the student teachers employ or are supposed to employ. For instance, in a study conducted by Almarza (1996) the relationships among four student teachers' own internalized models of teaching, which mainly comprised their own language learning experience and the teaching models they were offered during the teacher education programme, were investigated. The method they were supposed to use was a modified version of direct method. The results showed that one of the three teachers welcomed the method in terms of the integration of the method with her views on the nature of teaching. The other three, however, did not welcome the idea of employing the new method on the grounds that learners should not be at the centre of the teaching/learning process. In this study my student teachers work with supervisor teachers who might ask them to use particular methods based on their own views or internalized models. The beliefs they hold and how these beliefs interact with the ideas of their supervisors through the lens of code switching make up what is potentially one of the most significant parts of my study.

Student teachers' beliefs about subject matter and pedagogical knowledge represent another area in student teachers' beliefs that needs to be considered. In this study I do not necessarily put an emphasis on the subject matter taught in the classroom; however, different approaches of teachers to different subjects such as grammar and reading in terms of code switching might prove revealing. For instance, Freeman (1991) suggests that teachers can hold different views on the subject matter they teach under various contexts, which eventually will affect their pedagogical

knowledge. According to Borg (2003), teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching affect their teaching experience directly. A mastery of the language is needed and yet it is not the only factor shaping teachers' beliefs on the subject matter. Farrell (1999) carried out a study with student teachers which aimed to obtain personal opinions about grammar teaching along with the approach teachers preferred to employ: deductive or inductive. The results showed that some of the student teachers tended to follow the approach their own language teachers used, whether deductive or inductive, even though they noted that they considered some of those practices to be boring. The student teachers in my study are also likely to bring their own learning experiences to practice in terms of the approach adopted with respect to particular the subject matter.

Another categorization of student teachers beliefs was suggested by Zheng (2009) based on the summary of language teacher cognition research index suggested by Borg (2003). The first category is the relationship between student teachers beliefs and their prior language learning experience. Zheng (2009) argues that "teachers' prior language learning experience influence teachers' beliefs about learning, which forms the basis of their initial conceptualizations of EFL teaching during teacher education, and which may continue to be influential throughout their professional lives (p. 78). Similarly, Johnson (1994) called this the "images of formal language learning experiences" (p. 443) and noted that student teachers' teaching experiences are based on the images, activities, and materials that their own language learning experience included. Numrich (1996) also claimed that particular instructional

decisions or strategies are avoided by student teachers in terms of the positive and negative experiences they had when they were learners themselves.

Another categorization is the relationship between student teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. The body of research on the relationship between student teacher beliefs and their classroom practices has far from followed a consistent pattern (Zheng, 2009). In other words, the beliefs stated by student teachers may not always be consistent with their classroom practices, so a change in student beliefs might not be observed in the classroom (Fang, 1996; Borg, 2003).

The discussion of the issues above reveals that student teachers hold definite beliefs about teaching and learning. Their beliefs come from very different sources such as their own language learning experiences, the content they are supposed to teach, their supervisors, the actual teaching experience and so on. The important aspect I focus on here is the behaviour of student teachers as a result of these cognitions. These behaviours might not be same even though they are shared by individual student teachers. Especially in terms of code switching, the cognitions and the behaviours might show differences and may lead to a more detailed discussion of the way they see themselves in the classroom. Pittard (2003) argues that student teachers teach in the classroom during the teaching practice for the first time and this is the first opportunity for them to realise and employ what they believe and become aware of their self-perceptions and identities as teachers. In the next sections I discuss student teacher identity and self-image of student teachers in more detail.

2.2.1.3. Student Teacher Identity

There is a recent body of research in teacher development recognising the importance of teacher identity (Korthagen, Kessels, Koster, Lagerwerf, and Wubbels, 2001; Sachs, 2005; Freese, 2006; Hoban, 2007; Olsen, 2008; Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009). However, there has been no consensus on the content and the working definition of this concept as it is “a process of continual emerging and becoming” (Miller, 2009, p. 173). The framing of the dynamic nature of the concept of identity dates back to the ideas of social psychologists such as Erickson (1959) and Vygotsky (1978). For instance Erickson (1959) argued that one’s identity forms in the social contexts in which they exist based on biological and the psychological underpinnings which develop and change through the individual’s whole life.

As the concept of teacher identity involves many aspects such as professional development, teachers’ thoughts of their professional roles, the relationships between teachers’ perceptions of their roles, and their self-image, there are many definitions of teacher identity in the field. I believe the definitions in Table 2 below present below represent the aspects most relevant to my study.

Johnson (2003)	“relational, constructed and altered by how I see others and how they see me in our shared experiences and negotiated interactions” (p. 788).
Varghese (2006)	“defined here in terms of the influences

	on teachers, how individuals see themselves, and how they enact their professions in their settings” (p. 212).
Varghese, Morgan, Johnson, and Johnson (2005)	“transformational, transformative, context- bound, and constructed, maintained and negotiated via language and discourse” (p. 21).
Miller (2009)	“...it is continuously co-constructed in situ, using many resources including personal biography, interactional skills, knowledge, attitudes, and social capital. That is, pre-services teachers have a repertoire of resources they can deploy and “test” as they negotiate and build their professional identities in social and institutional contexts” (p. 175).

Table 2. Student Teacher Identity Definitions

The definitions above stress that identity is considered as a dynamic, constructed, negotiated, interactional and transforming concept in student teachers development. In this study, I am not particularly aiming to reveal the changes or developments in my student teachers’ identity and yet these discussions will form a foundation for my arguments relating to the ways in which code switching reflects that, which is a neglected issue in teacher education research. With this in mind, in

the next section I discuss the relationship between teacher knowledge, identity and practice in the classroom.

2.2.1.4. Identity, Knowledge and Practice

Teacher identity is an inseparable concept from teacher knowledge because “what teachers know and do is a part of their identity work, which is continuously performed and transformed through interaction in classrooms” (Miller, 2009, p. 175). As discussed earlier, teacher thinking (cognition), believing (beliefs) and employing (practice) form a triangular network that leads us to conclusions about the characterizations of the teachers and the lessons. Within this network, code switching plays a role that potentially enables us to understand how these systems work together. The student teachers in my study are non-native speakers of English; therefore the aspect of language knowledge and its relation to practice and identity might be an issue.

As discussed earlier, teacher identity primarily relates to the kind of teacher a (student) teacher wants to be in a particular context. According to Gee (2001), every teacher has a core identity and several sub-identities might emerge within particular contexts. These contexts are nature identity (one’s own natural state), institution identity (the identity shaped according to authority), discourse identity (stemming from the discourse of others about one’s self) and affinity-identity (derives from the practices of the teacher in relation to other groups involved in teaching). These contexts might be relevant to my student teachers in that they all have a nature

identity as well as their own views and beliefs about their teaching. They also have responsibilities to the institutions they practice teaching and the need to meet the expectations of their supervisor teachers and their tutor at the university. They also discuss their own teaching experience with other fellow student teachers or they observe other teachers. These contexts are interrelated as student teachers come to realise how they would like to be and act. In line with Gee's suggestions, Sachs (2005) summarizes this point as follows:

Teacher professional identity then stands at the core of the teaching profession. It provides a framework for teachers to construct their own ideas of 'how to be', 'how to act' and 'how to understand' their work and their place in society. Importantly, teacher identity is not something that is fixed nor is it imposed; rather it is negotiated through experience and the sense that is made of that experience (p. 15).

These arguments not only situate teachers' identity professionally, they also reveal the importance of the expectations student teachers' have of themselves during practice. As this study does not involve a longitudinal perspective on my student teachers' teaching experiences, it is not possible to comment on their development in the long run; however, it is still possible to observe traces of their core and contextual beliefs in terms of building their own identity and questioning how to be and how to act. Clandinin and Connelly (2004) note that experience leads to obtaining practical knowledge about teaching, which is "personal, context-bound, and includes implicit knowing" (p. 1305) and these are all aspects that are likely to

be exposed through the exposure of these teachers to the practicum experience. Varghese et. al. (2005) draw attention to the relationship between the context and the formation of teacher identity in that it can be both an individual and a social matter. In their study, four issues for teacher identity are identified: marginalization, the position of non-native teachers, and the professional status of teaching and teacher-student relations. In line with this, Miller (2009) quotes Cummins's (2000) observation that "all classroom interactions need to be understood in relation to the ways in which they generate knowledge" (p. 176). This is closely related to my aim in this study in that I analyse the talk in the classroom by focusing on code switching in order to understand how the interaction relates to aspects of teacher identity.

One of the compelling issues to discuss further here is the fact that the student teachers in my study are non-native teachers and how this potentially affects the development of their identity in relation to their knowledge and classroom practice. The issue of non-native teachers' identity has been regarded in terms of their own sense of status and power compared to native teachers and their quest to be acknowledged as competent teachers (Duff and Uchida, 1997; Varghese et. al. 2005; Bukor, 2011). Bukor (2011) raises particular issues on how and why non-native English teachers struggle within the context they have to teach:

Disadvantages of non-native English-speaking teachers are among others, linguistic deficit, "inferiority complex", "schizophrenia", and foreign

language anxiety. Linguistic deficit refers to linguistic competence, which is seen as the most prevailing shortcoming of non-native teachers (p. 116).

The above descriptions of the frustrating situations in which student teachers might find themselves in are not valid for all student teachers and yet there could be particular practices that might stem from these factors affecting their use of code switching in the classroom. In line with this, Reves and Medgyes (1994) argue that linguistic competence is closely related to self-esteem and self-image and might affect the attitudes of teachers towards work insofar as they are aware of their linguistic competence compared to native English teachers. Li (2007) also mentions the frustration non-native English teachers might experience in terms of relations with students: "I doubt whether my knowledge in ESL teaching is broad and deep enough, and more importantly, my English is good enough to deserve my students' respect" (p. 33). These doubts have also been addressed by Fuller and Brown (1975) as a sequence of concerns. The first step of the sequence is related to the role of the teacher in the classroom. Student teachers have an ideal role in their minds; however, the reality does not meet the actual practices in the classroom. The second one is the struggle between the theory and the practice in the classroom when the student teachers enter the classroom. This is relatively the most stressful period because student teachers are caught between the theories they were taught in the teacher preparation programme and the actual challenges relating to the content and classroom management, which creates a tension within themselves. The third step of student teacher concerns relates to the teaching situation. At this stage the teacher tries to meet the demands of the students' needs and yet they are faced with

their own linguistic and managerial limitations. The last concern is the learner with their own well-being during teaching process. Student teachers try to meet the emotional needs of the learners along with the content needs and may drift away from their professional beliefs and selves. My student teachers might experience these issues. As discussed, knowledge, context and practice are interconnected and a teacher's being a non-native speaker may be a particularly important factor.

At this point, another practice in language instruction which involves the use of code switching could be worth mentioning: translanguaging. The term 'translanguaging' is a relatively recent practice that aims to understand bilingual language practices (Canagarajah, 2011; Wei, 2011; Velasco and Garcia, 2014). The term was introduced by Williams (1996) as "a pedagogical practice in bilingual classrooms where input (e.g. reading and listening) is in one language and the output (e.g. speaking and writing) in another language" (Wei, 2011, p. 1223). Since then, the term has been explored by many other researchers (Garcia, 2009, 2011, 2013; Blackledge and Creese, 2010; Garcia and Sylvan, 2011; Canagarajah, 2011). As I explore code switching practices in this study, I think it is important to point out the difference between these terms. Translanguaging is similar to code switching in that it refers to switching from one language to another in a natural way in multilingual contexts. The difference lies in the approach taken towards the language switches that occur in the classrooms. Translanguaging was first employed deliberately as a pedagogical practice, in which two forms of language was switched on purpose in Welsh bilingual classrooms (Williams, 2002). The purpose was to combine two or more languages in order to help learners to construct meaning, shape experiences,

and to elicit a deeper understanding of the languages and the content being taught (Cenoz and Gorter, 2011, Lewis, Jones and Baker, 2012). In my study's case, however, I aim to explore naturally occurring code switching practices and how they contribute to the interaction and consequently what they reveal about student teachers' identity in the context of classrooms where bilingual practices are not part of the pedagogic design and are often discouraged.

These issues all bear on how student teachers see their selves as teachers and in the next section I discuss the relationship between the student teachers' self-perception and teacher agency and the contribution of these to their teaching practice.

2.2.1.5. Student Teachers' Self and Teacher Agency

"As I envision myself as a teacher, I see myself standing in front of the classroom where the seats are arranged in a semi-circle allowing students a clear vision of the chalkboard, and discussing with students the lesson I had prepared for the day. I see myself using plenty of visual aids, writing important points on the board, repeating myself several times, and waiting to receive responses or questions from the class. The learning environment is created by the students themselves, since they are the ones who need to have a pleasing atmosphere in which to learn and study. It is bright but not distracting, cosy enough so that the students do not feel that they are in a strange place, and intellectually stimulating so that they are always being exposed to something educational."

(Cole and Knowles, 1993, p. 459).

The narrative account above is an example the way a student teacher envisions the image of the teacher they would like to become. This narrative seems to belong to a rather enthusiastic student teacher who would like to create a student-centred, non-threatening and cosy environment which involves plenty of interaction. To what extent is it achievable? If it is not achievable, how does the student teacher feel?

One of the pioneering theories on self was introduced by Mead (1934), who argues that self is constructed by the organization and internalization of psychological experiences. These experiences result in the realisation of the person's environment and reflections of self. Borich (1999) refers to Mead's ideas on teacher's self to discuss teachers' actions in terms of their effectiveness. Hamachek (1999) draws on self-knowledge of teachers as a primal aspect of a teacher's effective practice while Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) state that teacher self is a prominent factor to understand teacher identity:

Evidently, the inextricable link between the personal and professional selves of a teacher must be taken into account in understanding teacher identity. Some of the complex factors involved in this link are the interplay of emotion as a part of the self and identity, the narrative and discourse aspects of the self and the shaping of identity, the role of reflection in understanding the self and identity, and the connection between identity and agency (p. 180).

Related to these discussions of teacher identity, there is another concept that has recently come to prominence: teacher agency. Agency has been primarily studied in social sciences, anthropology and gender studies (Turnbull, 2004; Lasky, 2005; Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009; Eteläpelto et. al. 2013). However, teacher agency is seen an important aspect in teacher development as “it shapes and is shaped by the structural and cultural features of society and school cultures” (Lasky, 2005, p. 900). The relationship between identity and agency has been noted not only in general terms (Holland et. al. 1998), but also with respect to identity in teaching, and the work of student teachers (Turnbull, 2004). The research dealing with teacher agency reveals that the sense of agency pertains to the ability to think forward, realisation of the teacher’s own identity, reaching instructional and pedagogical goals and context transformation (Beauchamp and Thomas, 2009). In that sense, if a teacher is aware of his/her identity, a strong sense of agency might result (Sfard and Prusak, 2005).

It is clear that teacher agency is an important aspect in understanding teachers’ professional development in general, but of most relevance to my study is its relevance to the experience of student teachers.

Turnbull’s (2004) study on student teacher agency stands as a significant example in this context. In her study she defines student teachers’ professional agency as follows:

Professional agency in the final practicum signifies that the student teacher feels capable of operating competently within the systems and structures of the practicum environment. The student teacher interacts effectively in all facets of professional practice; articulates, theorises and critically reflects upon practice; and exercises moral choice and political capacity in applying pedagogical principles based on a developing but clearly defined professional philosophy. The student teacher operates as a team member, is collaborative, and is free, in the main, from feelings of dominance, dependence, or compliance (p. 4).

The student teachers in my study are also involved in a teaching process. They are members of a team of students teaching at the schools to which they are assigned. They are also among the teachers in teacher preparation programme. Turnbull identified a number of factors affecting student teacher agency that might all be related to my student teachers. These factors are the practicum learning environment, student teacher professional knowledge, professional relationships and communication skills, and student teacher professional dispositions. The first factor focuses on whether student teachers feel welcomed in the teaching experience environment. This feeling of entitlement contributes to the development of teacher identity as it enables student teachers to feel members of the whole process. The second factor indicates the knowledge student teachers develop during the teacher development programme. If student teachers feel confident about their professional and pedagogical knowledge, they can operate with greater agency. Professional relationships and communication skills emphasise the importance of forming a

meaningful professional relationships through effective communication with fellow teachers and students. It is vital for student teachers to be able to engage with the agents involved in teaching practice correctly and collaboratively. Also important are student teacher professional dispositions which focus on engaging with supervisor teachers in a positive way. If the dispositions are not discussed in a professional and positive manner, particular complications might occur. These factors might also be mentioned and/or observed by my student teachers because establishing effective professional agency is important in terms of sharing, discussing and assessing pedagogical and personal notions that student teachers might encounter. This awareness can be founded on professional knowledge and the relationship student teachers form with each other, their learners and their supervisors.

In this chapter, I examined the main areas that are related to my study. Firstly I discussed code switching by providing a brief historical background followed by approaches to code switching and how these approaches are handled in EFL contexts. Based on these initial concepts, I referred to the studies opposing and supporting L1 usage in the EFL classrooms. These discussions gave me a clearer image view on where my findings stand in terms of the potential assertions of my student teachers about their code choices. Later on, I touched on teacher training and the importance of teaching practice as the study was carried out during the senior year of the student teachers. I also raised some of the other concepts related to teacher development such as teacher cognition, teacher identity and teacher agency, concepts which emerged as significant later during the analysis of the data.

The discussions above made me realise that code switching has strong connections to teacher thinking and pointed to significant relationships between code switching and teacher identity, and consequently teacher behaviour in the classroom, which turned out to be an under-researched area. The chapter has shown that although code switching has been heavily studied as a linguistic element that contributes to interaction in the classroom, its links with teacher identity and teacher development have not been explored. In the chapter that follows I aim to present the methodology used in this study to explore this broader context in which student teachers use code switching and reveal how their views of it also reflect aspects of their professional identity.

3. METHODOLOGY

The starting point of my study was based on a very general question that was raised by student teachers I observed during their teaching practicum before I started this research project: Where does Turkish stand in lessons, does it contribute to my teaching in any way, and if it does, how? Embarking from this very basic question, I realised that there is a very fundamental concern amongst such teachers about their code choice in lesson. My journey through the review of the literature indicated that research on code switching which merely aims to investigate the occasions of code switching in terms of its linguistic underpinnings, reasons and functions may not be enough to address the concerns that student teachers hold. We are all aware that code switching is out there, and we practise it for particular reasons and make use of its functions during classroom interaction and yet, an examination of the research available indicates the need for a more detailed analysis of what we can learn from code switching in relation to the actions and beliefs of student teachers. An understanding of this might have implications for how we approach teacher preparation and view teacher development.

Within the scope of these broader aims, my study addresses the following research questions:

1. Is there any evidence of different patterns of code switching among these teachers in their language classes?
2. What factors are affecting these code switching patterns?

3. For what stated purposes do student teachers switch codes and is there any connection between this and their beliefs about teaching?
4. What relationship, if any, is there between their views of code switching, their code switching behaviour and their identities as teachers?
5. In what ways does code switching relate to or throw light on relationships with the supervisor and/or tutor?

In order to identify what code switching encapsulates in the teaching processes, my first aim was to identify how interaction is built in lessons with a focus on code switching. For this purpose, I drew on aspects of conversation analysis, a method that aims to investigate naturally occurring talk in the classroom (Seedhouse, 2004; ten Have, 2007). This broadly conversation analytic approach enabled me to examine the patterns of code switching by both student teachers and their students not only for the immediate pedagogical functions they serve but also for the broader implications such as beliefs and identities of the student teachers. In order to identify the stated purposes and their own views of code switching, individual interviews and stimulated recall interviews were conducted with the student teachers. This process also aimed to explore their statements about the use of code switching with a view to shedding light on their beliefs and aspects of their professional identities. The final dimension of these networks of relationships is the influence of the supervisors and tutor on the teaching process of these student teachers and how this relates to their cognitions as teachers.

Such data has to be gathered in a systematic and meaningful way and subjected to an appropriate analytical process. Analysis of the classroom data was used in order to provide me with a clear picture of the nature of code switching in the classrooms studied in order to inform my selection of appropriate extracts for use in the stimulated recall interviews. In order to identify and interpret the data I obtained from the interviews and the stimulated recall, which form the basis of my findings in the thesis, I employed thematic analysis, which has been widely used in the analysis of interview data and proved equally applicable to the stimulated recall data. What follows is a more detailed account of the procedures involved in this process of data collection and analysis.

3.1. Sampling

This study is based on interviews, stimulated recall and videotaped data collected at a private school in which student teachers undertook their teaching practice as part of the teacher training programme offered by the English Language Teaching department at Kocaeli University, Turkey during the spring semester of 2010-2011 academic year.

The main data are taken from 21 lessons of EFL classrooms ranging from 5th to 10th grades taught by five student teachers. All of the lessons were conducted at the same private school in İzmit, Kocaeli. All of the students studying at this private school are taught English at least six hours a week, starting at first grade. The researcher acted as a non-participant observer and did not participate in the lessons

in any way. Thus, all of the materials and lesson procedures were prepared by the student teachers and their supervisor teachers at the school.

3.2. Participants

A total of five participants took part in the study. The participants were all senior student teachers studying at Kocaeli University English Language Teaching department. All of the participants were born in Turkey and were native speakers of Turkish, and although the tutor was male the four of the five students were female. The age range of the student teachers was from 22 to 24 and none of them had had school teaching experience before. The tutor of the students was a 48-year-old instructor who had been teaching for more than 20 years. He held an MA degree in ELT and was writing his PhD dissertation during the time data collection procedure took place. The supervisors of the student teachers were among the most experienced teachers teaching at the private school with 10 to 25 years of experience.

The contents of the lessons that student teachers taught varied. Student teacher 1 and 2 taught the same classes, namely 7th grades. The overall number of the students in these classes was 23. Most of the students had been studying since the first grade. The materials used in the lessons were the course book, namely *Blockbuster 2*, chosen by the school's department director, and the worksheets prepared by the student teachers according to the content of the unit.

Student teachers 3 and 4 taught 5th and 6th grades. They mostly taught 5th grade classes with 21 students, though they had to teach 6th graders for one week because of a school trip for 5th graders. All students at 5th grade had been studying English since first grade. Some of them had been abroad during the summer holidays. The materials used in the lessons were the course book and the additional worksheets prepared by the student teachers according to the lesson plan.

Lastly, student teacher 5 taught a 10th grade class with six students, all preparing for the linguistics departments of the universities in Turkey. Thus, their English proficiency was much higher than the other students. Most of the students in this class had been studying English for more than six years.

Every student teacher participating in the study was recorded for four times, with the sole exception of student teacher 5, who requested that I record an extra class for her own use. The amount of time they taught varied because of the time constraints put by the school they taught and their supervisor teachers. The duration of each student teacher's lesson can be found in Table 3.

Student Teacher	Number of the Lesson									
	1		2		3		4		5	
	Grade	Mins	Grade	Mins	Grade	Mins	Grade	Mins	Grade	Mins
ST1	7	38:58`	7	37:37`	7	18:52`	7	17:40`	N/A	N/A
ST2	7	39:08`	7	19:08`	7	17:34`	7	36:45`	N/A	N/A
ST3	5	15:11`	5	20:30`	5	22:05`	6	17:54`	N/A	N/A

ST4	5	22:37`	5	17:20`	5	22,02`	6	19,46`	N/A	N/A
ST5	10	22`	10	22:01`	10	30:14`	10	17:27`	10	19:05`

Table 3. Duration of teaching for each student teacher at each lesson

3.3. Gaining Access to the Research Context and Ethics

As I used to work as a research assistant at Kocaeli University, the university in which student teachers were trained, I was able to contact to the head of the English Language Teaching department. Once the permission of head of the department had been obtained, the lecturers teaching the 'Teaching Practice' class were asked if they wanted to take part in the study. One of the lecturers agreed to let me work with his group of students in his Teaching Practice group, which involved 22 student teachers. He introduced me to the students, who had been assigned to him randomly.

In order to make sure that all participants fully understood the purposes and the procedures of the study, I provided all participants with information sheets including the following information (See Appendices 1,2,3,4):

- a) The purpose of my research
- b) Data collection procedure (i. e., audio- video and video-recording, interviews)
- c) The duration of data collection (approximately 3 months)
- d) Data analysis procedure (e. g., transcribing)

- e) The confidentiality of data (where and how the data would be stored and anonymisation of the participants)
- f) The participants' right to withdraw from the study before the data collection procedure

The purposes of the study were explained to the student teachers and the tutor. The student teachers who wanted to take part in the study consented to be videotaped four times during the term, each recording covering a single complete lesson. One of the student teachers wanted an extra recording for her own personal records and she was videotaped five times. During the observation/recording data collection procedure, a total of 21 videos were therefore collected. These 21 videos provided the basis for the stimulated recall interviews. Following the recordings of the lessons, stimulated recall interviews were conducted with each student teacher. The videos belonging to each student teacher were watched one by one and the recall of information regarding verbal and non-verbal actions contributing to code switching. Stimulated recall interviews were conducted in order to provide one of the three fundamental points in the approach to conversational code switching, namely, the balance between social structure and conversational structure suggested by Wei (2002). Wei argues that since code switching might be interpreted in many ways, how the analyst ensures that his / her interpretations or descriptions are relevant to the participants in an occurring interaction is problematic. At this point, stimulated recall interviews enabled me to elicit relevant descriptions and/or interpretations of the code switching occurring in the classroom at a particular time.

In addition to the student teachers who were videotaped, seven other student teachers teaching at a state school wanted to take part in the study, but it was not possible to record their lessons. This was due to the disapproval of the school manager who did not let me to record the classes of those student teachers. I was informed that he would not let me record because of particular complaints he had to deal with from parents of children involved in previous research projects conducted at that school. I was further told that if I was nevertheless determined to conduct a study at that school, I would have to obtain a written notice from the Regional Educational Council and could then record the lessons only in presence of a representative from the parents. This would make the classroom overcrowded in terms of the observers and might have affected the quality of the data. In view of this and the sensitivities involved, I decided not to record any lessons.

In the following sections, I discuss the data collection methods used in this study in more detail.

3.4. Conversation Analysis

In this section, I discuss the emergence and development of conversation analysis, provide a brief discussion of its relation to ethnomethodology, identify characteristics of CA and discuss its application to L2 classrooms.

3.4.1. Emergence and Development of Conversation Analysis

Talk is socially organized, not merely in terms of who speaks to whom in what language, but as a little system of mutually ratified and ritually governed face-to-face action, a social encounter (Goffman, 1964, p. 65).

As Goffman (1964) pointed out, the emphasis on the study of talk is an important aspect and a solely linguistic study of language would not be sufficient to explore the complexity and the unique system of talk in interaction. Therefore, there was a need for a methodology to study “the talk rather than the language” (Gardner, 2006, p. 262). At this point, conversation analysis, the study of talk-in-interaction, aims to study *in situ*, naturally occurring, everyday interactional practices using systematic procedures and in an action-oriented approach (Goodwin and Heritage, 1990; Psathas, 1995; Drew, 2005; Gardner, 2006; Schegloff, 2006; Liddicoat, 2007; ten Have, 2007; Hellermann, 2008; Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008; Kasper, 2009; Pallotti, 2009; Wong and Waring, 2010). Conversation analysis has its foundations in several disciplines, mainly sociology, social psychology, communication studies, and (arguably) linguistics.

Conversation analysis was developed as an approach to the study of talk by the sociologist Harvey Sacks in the early 1960s, originating from the ethnomethodological tradition in sociology. What Sacks (1992) aimed at was “uncovering what was assumed to be unobservable systems for social order” (Hellermann, 2008, p. 51). The development of conversation analysis as an

approach, however, is the result of the collaborative efforts of researchers such as Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson. According to Seedhouse (2004, p. 2) Sacks's innovatory approach was influenced by his acquaintance with Garfinkel (the developer of ethnomethodology), Sacks's decision to investigate the organization of social interaction by analysing naturally occurring mundane talk through the new technology of audio recording.

Sacks's acquaintance with Garfinkel and his work on ethnomethodology provided a foundation for developing conversation analysis in terms of the investigation of the order of everyday talk (Liddicoat, 2007). However, the approach ethnomethodology and conversation analysis adopted towards the talk and the members of that talk were different. What Sacks sought to investigate was "the social order as it was produced through the practices of everyday talk" (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 4) rather than "social order seen through the common social knowledge of members of society of the forces that influence how individuals of members of society of the forces that influence how individuals interpret the situations and messages" (Liddicoat, 2007, p. 2). Thus, Sacks's approach focused on the assumption of the existence of "order at all points" in interaction, which means the "talk in interaction is systematically organized and deeply ordered and methodic" (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 2). It can be inferred that ethnomethodology embraces conversation analysis in that it aims to come up with the collaborative interpretations of social order of a society using talk, whereas conversation analysis focuses on the analysis of the actual talk, unearthing its systematic nature and the part this plays in the establishment of shared understanding. Seedhouse (2004) draws this distinction as follows:

Ethnomethodology studies the principles on which people base their social actions, whereas CA focuses more narrowly on the principles which people use to interact with each other by means of language. (p. 4)

Audio recordings gave Sacks the opportunity to record and store data and enabled him to listen to the conversations repeated times. The recordings eventually brought the need for transcriptions of the tapes. At first, the transcriptions were not very complicated in terms of providing too many details regarding the sequences, but later a format to provide more details of the utterances in relation with the speakers was developed (ten Have, 2007).

Given the developments in voice recording and transcription, the scope of the application of conversation analysis expanded. Through the foundation provided by the work of Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, conversation analysis, emerging from sociology, has become a method of inquiry on its own to understand organizational structure of talk (Lerner, 2004). In addition, what conversation analysis took from ethnomethodology was a way of explaining how order is achieved in social interaction and on the basis of micro-analytic study (Clayman and Maynard, 1995). The expansion supported by its sociologist, linguistic, and ethnomethodological foundations made possible its application to classroom talk-in-interaction as in the case of my study.

3.4.2. Characteristics of Conversation Analysis

In order to understand the methodology, strengths and weaknesses of conversation analysis, one has to have a clear understanding its characteristics and purposes.

Psathas (1995) has provided a helpful characterization of conversation analysis focusing on its assumptions. He argues “the order/organization/orderliness of social action, particularly those social actions that are located in everyday interaction, in discursive practices, in the sayings/telling/doings if members of society” are topics of study in conversation analysis and this framework bring the following assumptions with it. Of all seven assumptions, two of them are related to the purposes of my study:

1. Issues of how frequently, how widely, or how often particular phenomena occur are to be set aside in the interest of discovering, describing, and analysing the structures, the machinery, the organized practices, the formal procedures, the ways in which order is produced.
2. The parties orient to that order themselves; that is, this order is not an analyst’s conception, nor the result of the use of some performed or preformulated theoretical conceptions concerning what action should/must/ought to be, or based on generalizing or summarizing statements about what action generally/frequently/often is. (Psathas, 1995, pp. 2-3)

The point places emphasis on the nature of the relevant phenomena rather than on issues of frequency, distribution, etc., while the second highlights the refusal of conversation analysts to rely on theory and predetermined patterns during the analysis, instead basing their analysis on what can be discovered in the talk itself.

Another characterization of conversation analysis has been suggested by Seedhouse (2004). He first reveals the two principal aims of conversation analysis. The first one is the characterization of the organization of the interaction to uncover the emic logic underpinning the organization by abstracting from exemplars of interaction specimens. The second one is “to trace the development of intersubjectivity in an action sequence” (p. 13). The first aim stresses the importance conversation analysis gives to the interactional structure. The second one focuses on the role of the participants’ interpretation of the progress of interaction and associated analytical aim of understanding how participants analyse the procedure. At this point, Seedhouse (2004) quotes Hutchby and Wooffitt’s (1998, p. 14) claim in that conversation analysis practitioners aim “to discover how participants understand and respond to one another in their turns at talk, with a central focus on how sequences of action are generated” (p. 13). This study also focuses on the understanding the interactors display during the talk with the focus on code switching and how code switching contributes to the shared understanding, though unlike conversation analysis it also seeks their retrospective views on what is happening in the talk.

In addition to the principal aims, Seedhouse (2004) summarizes the overall principles adopted by the researchers working on conversation analysis, broadly conceived, which he characterises as those who “adopt a conversation-analytic mentality” (p. 13) which is the position adopted in this research. The principles are as follows:

- There is order at all points in interaction, which is Sacks’ original idea (Hutchby and Wooffitt, 1998)
- Contributions of conversation analysis to interaction are *context-shaped* and *context-renewing* (italics in original).
- No order of detail can be dismissed a priori as disorderly, accidental, or irrelevant (Heritage, 1984, p. 241)

The first principle stresses the Sacks’ original idea which can be regarded as a radical departure from the view that conversation is relatively disordered (at least in comparison with the objects of traditional linguistic inquiry). What is meant by the order of interaction is not the fact that everything in a particular talk is rational, but that it is organized. The second principle focuses on the way in which talk both reflects contextual aspects and reinforces these. The third principle draws the attention to the fact that all elements in the talk need to be considered rather than merely a selection of these made by the analyst and this also has implications for the representativeness of the transcriptions.

In terms of the principles provided within the scope of the literature, Seedhouse (2004) further presents the following purposes:

- Conversation analysis practitioners regard the recordings of naturally occurring interaction as the primary data.
- Transcripts are designed to make the primary data available for intensive analytic consideration by the analyst and other readers.
- Transcripts are inevitably incomplete, selective renderings of the primary data which invariably involve a trade-off between readability and comprehensiveness. (p. 15)

The further purposes suggested by Seedhouse (2004) relate to my study in that they focus on the data's natural occurrence and the principle that the primary data are found in the recordings rather than the transcripts. In all cases, I have based analytical conclusions on the original recordings and used transcripts for representational purposes.

3.4.3. Conversation Analysis and Applied Linguistics

Conversation analysis is a method of inquiry which aims to investigate and analyse all kinds of talk and interaction, thus it inevitably relates to some areas of research in applied linguistics (Schegloff, Koshik, Jacoby, Olsher, 2002; Drew, 2005). Even though studies addressing the relationship between discourse and language education using discourse analysis as means of inquiry have contributed to

knowledge of analysing the spoken data in language classrooms (McCarthy, 1991; Hatch, 1992; McCarthy and Carter, 1994), there is a growing research interest in applying conversation analysis in language education contexts (Seedhouse, 2005).

Conversation analysis has been adapted to various areas of research in applied linguistics such as teaching languages for specific purposes, language teaching materials design, language proficiency assessment, language classroom interaction, native/non-native speaker talk and code switching (Seedhouse, 2005). Practically, conversation analytic approaches brought new dimensions to the understanding of the interaction in language classrooms (Seedhouse, 2005; Drew, 2005; Richards, 2005; Wong, 2002); however, Drew (2005) suggests several themes that might create some tension in the application of conversation analysis to applied linguistics. I will discuss only the ones which are relevant to my study. One of those themes is the “normative character of conversational patterns” (p. xvi). Drew (2005) notes the purpose of conversation analysis is to reveal the order in talk-in-interaction and does this through patterns, practices which are presented in sequential circumstances. Another theme is the “practices for interacting and reasoning are not setting-specific” (p. xvii). According to Drew (2005), in applied linguistics researchers describe the setting of the study in detail and the effect of the setting is taken for granted for them. Nevertheless, conversation analysis regards the findings to be independent from the setting. When looked from another perspective, however, this also creates an opportunity for investigating the relationship between the setting and the activity. For my study, this interplay between the setting and the activity creates a rich domain to study because in every class every teacher

implements a different method or curricular activity which suggests that code switching might offer a way of understanding and comparing how these activities are organised.

Another theme suggested by Drew (2005) is the “intervention and designed output” (p. xvii) conversation analysis and applied linguistics offer. Applied linguistics studies aim to improve reform or intervene in the issues they explore whereas conversation analysis has a more descriptive nature; in other words “basic research in conversation analysis has focused only on investigating and identifying the practices that underlie our competence as users of a language, to document these practices, not to evaluate them” (p. xviii). However, it can be noted that due to its analytic nature, the application of conversation analysis has managed to shift into becoming applied, thereby offering implications for practice. Indeed, one of the aims of my study seeks to present implications for the language teaching department curriculum in Turkey in terms of the attitude towards L1 use in language classrooms and emphasis on the potential affect of code switching on interaction. In fact, Drew (2005) himself seems to support this position: “A few years ago, I would have said that AL and CA were wide apart; but now I think differently. I think ... that there is an increasing convergence between the two” (p. xx).

At this point, the distinction suggested by ten Have (2007), which he drew from Heritage’s (2004) suggestion of two kinds of conversation analytic research, namely institution of interaction and institutions in interaction, should be mentioned. ten Have (2007) identified the two kinds of conversation analysis research as ‘pure CA’

and 'applied CA'. The expression 'pure CA' stands for the original purposes of conversation analysis which are "motivated by the wish to discover basic and general aspects of sociality" (ten Have, 2007, p. 174). On the other hand, 'applied CA' could attempt to balance two aims. These aims include "studying institutional arrangements as these pertain to the organization of interaction, such as turn taking, the distribution of speaking rights, etc., in relation to various aspects of the institution's functioning" and "studying the specific institutional activities, the specific interactional situation, its local, interactional requirements, the ways in which the interactants show their orientations to these situations and requirements" (p. 8). Even though ten Have claims to "simply refer" to the types of conversation analysis, he actually makes a substantial distinction. Although he does not make entirely clear what 'pure CA' stands for, the point he makes for 'applied CA' relates to my study in terms of the broad approach it takes towards the organization of interaction and in mentioning the local and interactional requirements of specific interactional situations, with special attention to the situations and requirements of the participants of the talk.

Having introduced the relationship between conversation analysis and applied linguistics, I will now move on its implementation in L2 classrooms.

3.4.4. Conversation Analysis and its Application in L2 Classrooms

As conversation analysis is a method used to study all types of talk and interaction, a number of researchers have applied it in applied linguistics and L2 classrooms.

The interaction in L2 classrooms is addressed as the “organization of language classroom interaction” by Seedhouse (2004). He claims that the first phase of understanding interaction in L2 classrooms is to admit that there is a “core institutional goal” which is that *the teacher will teach the learners the L2* (original in italics) (p. 183). This means, no matter how different the context, the individuals taking part in the conversations and the pedagogical focus are, the core goal of the interaction in language classrooms do not change unlike the settings in which conversation analysis is used to analyse interaction. This uniqueness brings its own features to the interaction in L2 classrooms presented as follows:

1. Language is both the vehicle and object of instruction (Long, 1983, p. 9).
2. There is a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction, and interactants constantly display their analyses of the evolving relationship between pedagogy and interaction.
3. The linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which the learners produce in the L2 are potentially subject to evaluation by the teacher in some way.

(Seedhouse, 2004, pp. 183-184)

The first feature stresses the fact that among the interactional situations, only in L2 classrooms is the language is used as both the “medium” and the “object”, or in other words, “process” and the “product” (Seedhouse, 2004, p. 184). The second feature deals with the reflexivity of the interaction according to the pedagogical underpinnings of the lesson. Interaction evolves according to the pedagogical focus and is flexibly exploited by both by the teacher and the students. Seedhouse (2004) calls this as the transformation of the pedagogical focus (task-as-workplan) into

interaction (task-in-process). In terms of this feature, my concern is to analyse the focus on the task-in-process, which is the transformed interaction from the task-as-workplan from the process and the relationship between the two. The third feature relates to the claim that “everyone involved in language teaching and learning will readily agree that evaluation and feedback are central to the process and progress of language learning” (van Lier, 1988, p. 32). This claim, however, does not mean that evaluation or giving feedback are necessarily a continuous action present in the language classroom; they are “potential” results of teaching in language classroom (Seedhouse, 2004). In my study, I do not mean to tag the interactions as ‘feedback’ or ‘evaluation’. Nevertheless, I believe it is inevitable that I will come across turns between the teachers and the students which will involve giving feedback and evaluating, and one should be aware of these during the analysis to be more conscious of the ‘interactional organization’ and ‘structure’ of the talk, which is a prominent feature of conversational analytic approach.

In addition to the universal features of language classrooms and their potential implications for conversation analysis, Seedhouse (2004) discusses a possible sequence organization of interaction in language classrooms in three stages. Firstly, a pedagogical focus is introduced and this introduction is generally initiated by the teacher, though it might be initiated by the students as well. Secondly, there should be at least two people relating to the pedagogical focus, or in other words the ‘task-in-process’ as described by Seedhouse (2004). Lastly, the interaction among the participants reveals their understanding of the pedagogical input and involves their performing in the target language. This involves the participants in monitoring each

other and generating a relationship between pedagogy and interaction. The relation of the last stage of the possible sequence organization of interaction to my study is the 'possible' display of the L2 performance of the students in the classroom and more importantly, how this is understood by the students. As I am interested in how code switching contributes to the interaction in L2 classroom, only paying attention to the 'display of the L2 performance' of the students will not take me to the impact of code switching on interaction; instead, I intend to examine examples of switches by both teachers and students as a basis for exploring how the teachers perceive this not only in the context of immediate pedagogic goals but also their broader beliefs about its place in the broader pedagogic context.

As the discussion above reveals, conversation analysis is defined as "the study of talk, at the most basic level" which aims to "study recorded, naturally occurring talk-in-interaction" by Hutchby and Wooffitt (2008, pp. 11-12). However, they also ask an important question; "What is the aim of studying these interactions?" (p. 12). The literature reveals the following aims: to identify how participants in talk exchange turns and in which interactional organizations they generate sequences (Seedhouse, 2004; Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008). Following this assumption, another question emerges: why would a researcher use conversation analysis in their work? Drawing on the discussions above, the reasons why I have chosen a broadly conversation analytic approach to the understanding of my own classroom data can be summed up as follows:

- Conversation analysis operates *closer to the phenomena* (original in italics) than most other approaches, because it works on detailed renderings of interactional activities, recording, and detailed transcripts, rather than on coded, counted, or otherwise summarized representations.
- Conversation analysis favours naturally occurring data rather than ‘experimental’ or ‘researcher provoked’ ones, because it considers talk-in-interaction as a ‘situated’ achievement rather than as a product of personal intentions ... it is therefore less ‘artificial’.
- Conversation analysis perspective on human interaction is *organizational* and *procedural* (original in italics): when people talk with each other this is not seen as a series of individual acts, but rather as an emergent collectively organized event; the analytic purpose is not to explain why people act as they do, but rather to explicate how they do it (ten Have, 2007, p. 9).

In this study, I aim to understand how code switching relates to the talk in the classroom and how it contributes to it. CA stands out the most appropriate method to employ in this context. The first reason for that is CA’s approach to data. I do not use coded or summarized sections from the data; on the contrary, I present detailed transcripts of interaction and interpret them within the patterns of organization which provides a foundation to understand the themes emerging from the interviews and stimulated recall interviews. The close attention to detail required in CA is helpful in terms of both transcription and attention to the development of the talk. Although I do not provide a detailed analysis of classroom interaction in the thesis, sensitivity to this, as required by CA, helped me to get a better sense of how

the talk was constructed. Secondly, I do not rely on pre-determined patterns while analysing the talk, on the contrary, I am interested to discover the role of code switching in the talk. CA gives me the opportunity to analyse the selected interaction extracts without having to rely on particular pre-determined categorizations. CA forms the basis for the themes emerging from the analyses of the individual and stimulated recall interviews in that, they emerge as a result of the evidence of interaction that occurred in the classroom. In stimulated recall interviews, student teachers discuss code switching events and the interaction taking place in the classroom and these relevant events make sense within the context of analyses employed by using CA. For instance, upon transcribing the lessons I video-recorded, I particularly highlighted the instances of code switching as that is my focus in terms of the interaction in the classroom. Without any pre-determined themes or patterns in my mind, I re-watched and re-read the instances embedded within the flow of the each lesson. Only after paying close attention to those instances did I recognise that particular commonalities had started to emerge, such as the extensive use of code switching while teaching grammar. At that point, CA became a tool to understand how the interaction was shaped between student teachers and their students in terms of student teachers' code choice while providing explanations of grammatical points and/or how they responded to the questions they received from their students. Every occurrence of code switching and the dynamics of the interaction differed from one another and therefore my understanding of any classroom event depended on the exploration of in its own terms. Inevitably, my understanding and interpretation of the events were limited to my observations and provided a foundation for the more detailed themes I

obtained from the individual interviews and the stimulated recall interviews. Those themes substantially filled the gap between my own interpretations of the interactions and what student teachers actually experienced and thought. CA gave me the freedom to analyse what had happened in the classroom and helped me to construct a foundation for the future analysis points I gathered through the results of the thematic analysis that I applied to the individual interviews and stimulated recall interviews.

3.5. Interviews

3.5.1. Introduction

Interviews have been used as a method to obtain in depth insights about numerous phenomena in a wide range of disciplines adopting qualitative inquiry traditions, including applied linguistics (Wengraf, 2001; Dornyei, 2007; Talmy and Richards, 2010). Even though it is claimed that the interview tends rather undertheorised (Mann, 2011), its use has increased in applied linguistics studies due to its nature which aims to “investigate participants’ identities, experiences, beliefs, attitudes, and orientations toward a range of phenomena” (Talmy, 2010, p. 25). Rubin and Rubin (2005) address the investigation process suggested by Talmy (2010) as “listening, hearing and sharing social experiences” (p. 1). Basically, researchers using interviews in applied linguistics do seem to have a consensus about the role of interviews to generate data for the studies as Briggs (1986) claims 90% of social science articles use interviews as a method of data collection (cited in Mann, 2011). Wooffitt and Widdicombe (2006) claim “to go further, it is probably accurate to

claim that the majority of qualitative research conducted in the social sciences has to some degree drawn upon data generated through interviews between researchers and members of the public" (p. 28). The present study also adopted qualitative data collection procedures, and made use of interviews. The interviews conducted with the student teachers aimed to reveal the thoughts of student teachers about code switching, their opinions on its potential effect in interaction, and their broader views of approaches to teaching with particular reference to L1 and L2 use in the classroom. Therefore, in the next the qualitative interviews in applied linguistics along with the roles of the interviewer and interviewee will be discussed.

3.5.2 The Qualitative Interview

The qualitative interview basically aims to explore the accounts of the interviewee about a specific topic, in the case of this study code switching. It does not seek to quantify aspects of the interviewee's "life story" on the contrary "it works with words, not numbers" (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009, p. 30). While conducting the interviews for my study, I aimed to approach the interviewing process as a social practice rather than a session of question and answers. This process brings several challenges to the interviewer because nowadays the interviews are "everywhere" (Sarangi, 2003, p. 69).

Atkinson and Silverman (1997) describe the society we are living in as the "interview society" because of its reliance on the interviewing. The notion itself has reference to the common culture: how people are not able avoid 'being interviewed'

or 'interviewing' other people to obtain opinion. In the interview society, every individual's opinion counts and it relies on "pervasively on face-to-face interviews to reveal the personal, the private self of the subject" (p. 309). Atkinson and Silverman (1997) also express their concerns about how "uncritical" the interviews could become for the sake of "celebrating the individual social actor" (p. 310). This concern stems from the fact that interviews are now used in a variety of contexts and have become a "universal mode of systematic inquiry" (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995, p. 1). However, their systematic nature does not mean that interviews preclude meaningful and constructive interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee (Fontana and Frey, 2005). In my study, I do not approach the interviewees as agents of data gathering; my aim is to establish meaningful and constructive interaction within the framework of the issues I would like to discuss with them during the interviewing sessions.

3.5.3 Qualitative Interviews in Applied Linguistics

As mentioned earlier, interviews have become one of the most widely used means of generating data recently in applied linguistics studies (Richards, 2009; Talmy, 2010; Mann, 2011), though Mann (2011) has highlighted the lack of adequate theorization of qualitative interviews in applied linguistics. He highlights a number of "problematic aspects of data collection, analysis, and representation" (p. 1), a position also taken up by Richards (2009, p. 159), who argues that the interviews need more "methodological interrogation".

In drawing attention to the distinction of the interview data as ‘two versions of interview data’ Silverman (1993) makes an important contribution to the understanding of interviews in applied linguistics, one which has been taken up and adapted by other researchers. The two versions are ‘interview-as-technique’ and ‘interview-as-local-accomplishment’. While the first one relies on the “technical criteria” in which the researcher “reflects respondents’ place in the social structure” (p. 104), the latter aims to project the “knowledge of social structures used to produce adequate utterances” (p. 104). In the latter, the researcher also acts like an observer and includes these observations into his/her analysis, which is in line within the context of my study. In a similar vein, following his discussion on the lack of theorization of interviews in applied linguistics, Talmy (2010) suggests a conceptualization for theorizing interviews: “the interview as a research instrument” and “the research interview as a social practice” (p. 26). The interview as a research instrument is regarded as a resource for “collecting or eliciting information” (p. 27) and aims to provide practical information ‘about’ the interview with special focus on product rather than the process of data elicitation. The research interview as a social practice involves participation procedures related to the social practices of the interview setting itself. The knowledge gathered is *co-constructed* and analytically “acknowledges the sociality of the interview, including but not limited to various forms of discourse analysis” (p. 27). Talmy’s (2010) suggestion is also in line with the two traditions of interview data proposed by Seale (1998): *interview-data-as-resource* and *interview-data-as-topic*. Even though Seale’s position is focused more on the interview data rather than interview as an instrument, they both make distinctions about the process or product oriented

presentation of the data. The *interview–data-as-resource* tradition relies on the reflection of the interviewee’s reality out of the interviewing process. The *interview–data-as-topic*, on the other hand, refers to the co-construction of reality by both interviewer and the interviewee during the interviewing process.

In order to make it easier to see the similarities and differences between the researchers’ positions, the categorization of the interview as a research instrument by these researchers is presented in Table 4.

Researcher	Interview as a Research Instrument	
Silverman (1993)	Interview-as-technique <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • relies on technical criteria • reflects respondents’ place in the social structure 	Interview-as-local-accomplishment <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • projects the knowledge of social structures used to produce adequate utterances • researcher acts like an observer and adds observations to analysis
Talmy (2010)	Interviews as a research instrument <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • used as a resource to collect or elicit data • provides practical information about the interview with 	Interview as a social practice <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • aims to participate in the social practices of the interview setting • co-construction of knowledge

	focus on product, not the data elicitation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> acknowledges the sociality of interview without limiting it to forms of discourse analysis
Seale (1998)	Interview-data-as-resource <ul style="list-style-type: none"> relies of the reflection of the interviewees' reality out of interviewing process 	Interview-data-as-topic <ul style="list-style-type: none"> relies on the reflection of the reality construction by interviewer and interviewee

Table 4. Categorisation of Interview as a Research Instrument

As seen in Table 4, the most prominent distinction between the three approaches suggested by the researchers addresses the technical and social aspects of interviewing. The technical aspects include the practical information about the interview while the social aspects include the relationship between the interviewer and interviewee. How interviewer positions himself/herself (Silverman, 1993) and the way knowledge is co-constructed by the both parties are important in research interview (Seale, 1998; Talmy, 2010). During the interview sessions in my study, my position as an interviewer embraces both approaches of the social aspects suggested. I not only aim to add my observations to my analysis of the interviews that projects knowledge produced by the interviewees, but also aim to 'construct' a meaningful and constructive discussion on code switching with the interviewees.

3.5.4 Different Approaches to Interviewing

There are various categorizations of interviewing styles, methods and types. While some types are bound to the *traditions* of research, some of them are simply related to the *methods* of interviewing. One of the distinctions between the interview styles was made by Powney and Watts (1987). According to them there are two main interview styles; namely “respondent” and “informant” interviews. The main feature of the former style is the interviewer’s control over the interviewing process. The researcher has pre-determined questions to be answered and the procedure of question-answer sequence is strictly structured. When it comes to the informant interviews, the procedure is a bit more flexible and the main characteristic of this style of interviewing is to obtain the insights of the interviewee within a situation. The interviewee has the control and the interviewer acts like a facilitator for the interviewee to open up and express herself/himself.

Gorden (1969) makes one of the earliest distinctions between the different approaches to interviewing. According to him, there are two dimensions in interviewing and the first dimension deals with “the degree to which communication between the interviewer and respondent is specified and controlled by a prepared schedule” (p. 37). Gorden’s (1969) first dimension shows similarities with ‘respondent’ interview suggested by Powney and Watts (1987). The second dimension Gorden (1969) suggests deals with the “amount of freedom which the interviewer allows the respondent in selecting topics and sequences of topics related to the objective of the interview” (p. 37). It is interesting to see how Gorden (1969)

refers to the participants as 'respondents' instead of 'interviewees'. His early discussion of the interview dimension reveals the conceptualization of the interview practice decades ago especially in terms of the control of the interviewer on the interviewing process. The following statement reveals this mentality: "An interviewer can purposefully vary his behaviour both in the dimension of *scheduling* and the dimension of *topic control*" (p. 37). Following the discussion of the two dimensions, he suggests two types of interviews; namely scheduled and non-scheduled. The scheduled interview stands for a sequence of conversation within the framework of the pre-determined questions which is also referred to as a structured interview. The term 'structured' is also referred to as a "recording schedule" (Gillham, 2005, p. 80 cites Moser and Kalton, 1986). The term recording schedule was used to point out the difference between questionnaires and the structured interview. In structured interviews, the researcher has a detailed, pre-planned interview schedule/guide, asks same questions to each interviewee and seeks to code the answers to every question he/she has in the interview schedule. This type of interview is generally used in market research surveys or opinion polls in order to obtain tightly controlled answers. However, such interviews lack spontaneity and flexibility, which makes them a kind of 'spoken questionnaires' (Dornyei, 2007). The non-scheduled interview is concerned with a central purpose and the means of gathering knowledge from the interviewee is not strictly scheduled by the researcher so it would correspond broadly to what is now generally referred to as a *qualitative interview*, the term that will be used in this thesis.

A useful contemporary categorisation of qualitative interviewing was proposed by Gillham (2005). He divides all types of interviews into two groups in terms of the method they use. The first one is face-to-face methods which includes ethnographic methods in which the interviewer acts like a participant-observer in real-life contexts, the unstructured interview, the elite interview, group interviewing, semi-structured interview, structured interview, the video interview, and the interview as a qualitative experiment. The second one comprises distance methods which include the telephone interview, the e-mail interview and the 'open' questionnaire interview. In what follows I focus on face-to-face interviewing methods, which most studies in applied linguistics make use of and which are relevant to my own study. I begin by reviewing unstructured and semi-structured interviews.

3.5.4.1 The Unstructured Interview

The main characteristic of unstructured interview is providing the freedom to the interviewee to "tell their story" (Gillham, 2005, p. 45). The fact that it is called 'unstructured' does not mean that it is a random talk without a purpose; on the contrary, it aims to "provide maximum flexibility to follow the interviewee in unpredictable directions, with only minimal interference from the research agenda" (Dornyei, 2007, p. 135). Researchers conducting unstructured interview ask interviewees to discuss ideas about a specific topic and do not have pre-planned questions. Open interviews are often used to obtain general impression about things that might be elaborated in more detail in the other stages of the research, or to explore an individual's life experiences in contexts with which the researcher might

not be familiar (Gillham, 2005; Dornyei, 2007). This method of interviewing is not appropriate for my study because my aim is not to elicit extended narratives or to gain general impressions as a prelude to further exploration. I also had a mental and written interview guide to prompt discussion about different aspects of code switching and went through similar questions with every interviewee for the purposes of comparison, which is not an approach suited to the use of unstructured interviews.

3.5.4.2 The Semi-structured Interview

Semi-structured interviews are the most important and widely used type of interviews in applied linguistics (Gillham, 2005; Dornyei, 2007). That is mainly because while they require the preparation of questions to be asked and prompts to be used, they also give the interviewer and the interviewee the freedom to explore certain issues within the context of the study. Gillham (2005) summarizes the features of semi-structured interviews as follows:

- The same questions are asked of all those involved;
- The kind and form of questions go through a process of development to ensure their topic focus;
- To ensure equivalent coverage (with an eye to the subsequent comparative analysis) interviewees are prompted by supplementary questions if they have not dealt spontaneously with one of the sub-areas of interest;
- Approximately equivalent interview time is allowed in each case.
- Questions are open – that is the direction or character of the answer is open;

- Probes are used according to whether the interviewer judges there is more to be disclosed at a particular point in the interview (p. 17)

Another feature of the semi-structured interview is the requirement of a 'piloting' (Gillham, 2005) or 'initial sampling' (Dornyei, 2007) and an 'interview guide' due to its 'structured' nature. The piloting procedure also requires attention, mainly because it will reveal the possible deficits in wording of questions, changes in question focus, and flow of the conversation with the actual participants of the study. For my case, as I used the semi-structural interview as the type of interview, I conducted a pilot interview with one of my fellow PhD students in the department. Even though she was not directly related to the topic of my study, I had to chance to elaborate on my interview skills such as the initial contact, the orientation of the questions, the flow of conversation, the probes and feedback I used, how to close the session, etc., along with the practical issues such as the preparation of the setting and the recording instruments. At the time I started conducting interviews with the actual participants of my study, in retrospect, the pilot interview allowed me to be more self confident with the process as I had a mental and a written interview guide. The development of the interview guide grew together with the research questions. I thought over the responses I would like to obtain in order to shed light on my research questions.

The first step was asking interviewees (student teachers) to talk through the general experience they had had so far during the teaching practice course. Additional

questions included their opinions about the support they got from the university tutor, the supervisor teacher at the school they were teaching and the contents of the course. My aim in asking these preliminary questions was to establish initial contact and to make the interviewees feel comfortable by talking about general issues and exploring remarks to code switching. Remaining questions consisted of asking them to talk about the practice of exchanging between languages, at which stage of lesson and why they did it, and how they felt about the practice of it and whether they were encouraged or discouraged to the practice of this by any other source (tutor, supervisor or the school board). This represents the contents of the interview data and I will address issues in analysis and interpretation later in the data analysis and discussion sections. At this point, a discussion on the interactive nature of the relationship between the interviewer and interviewee needs to be explored; however I will turn to it after a brief discussion of the stimulated recall interview from the perspective of data collection. A more detailed discussion of stimulated recall as a method will be provided in a separate section.

In addition to the types of interviews mentioned above, face-to-face interviews also include focus group interviews (not used in this study) and introspective methods such as think-aloud technique, retrospective interview or stimulated recall – which is a part of this study.

Introspective methods, as the name suggests, aim to examine or observe one's mental or emotional processes. The implementation of introspective methods was mainly used by psychologists in the early nineteenth century. The purpose in using

these methods is “helping the respondents to vocalize what is/was going through their minds when making a judgement, solving a problem or performing a task” (Dornyei, 2007, p. 147). Therefore the data obtained from introspective methods are in the form of a ‘verbal report’ or ‘verbal protocol’. After the recognition of the importance of one’s mental processes and consciousness, introspective methods started to be used in more studies in applied linguistics (Kormos, 1998 cited in Dornyei, 2007, p. 148).

One introspective method is think-aloud technique. The aim of this technique is to ensure participants to ‘vocalize’ their thoughts while carrying out a task (Ericsson, 2002). This technique also covers the ‘inner speech’ of the participants without any interventions, explanation or analysis. (Dornyei, 2007). The role of the researcher during the think aloud task is to encourage the participant to continue talking while carrying out the activity.

The retrospective interview or stimulated recall also focuses on the participants’ expression of thoughts but in this case *after* completing a task or mental process. According to Ericsson (2002), the amount of time between the task and the recall interview is vital because if there is a long interval between the action and the recall interview, the recall of the action will be poor. As it is difficult to conduct interviews right after the action in applied linguistics, Gass and Mackey (2000) suggests the use of a stimulus to support the recall process. This stimulus can be a video of the participant’s performance or written work produced by him/her (Dornyei, 2007). In this study stimulated recall interviews were conducted with the participant student

teachers; every student teacher and the researcher watched the videos taped while they were teaching. They were asked to make comments on their performances and respond to the questions I asked while they were watching. A more detailed analysis of stimulated recall will be presented below in a separate section.

3.5.5 Interviewer-Interviewee Relationship (the roles of interviewer and interviewee)

The significance of the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee has been recognized for more than two decades (Garrett, 1965; Gorden, 1969; Powney and Watts, 1987; Richards, 2003; Rubin and Rubin, 2005; Gillham, 2005; Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009, Mann, 2011). Several positions are taken up regard to it. For instance, Garrett (1965) discusses the “interviewer’s attitudes” (p. 21) under the sub headings prejudices and acceptance. She discusses prejudices and acceptance in terms of how it can affect the quality of conversation in interview and the control of feelings instead of absence of feelings is encouraged.

Gorden (1969) discusses the role of the interviewer in terms of the tasks to be covered before the interview. He points out the significance of the “problems of communication” that might affect the “flow of relevant and valid information” (p. 61). Rubin and Rubin (2005) regard the relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee as a “conversational partnership” (p. 79). They discuss how emotions and personality affects the exchange patterns and eventually the quality of talk. They draw attention to the significance of research roles, building trust both for the

interviewer and the interviewee. They claim that “listening” is an indispensable but mostly ignored interviewer skill and Richards (2003) also discusses the importance of “learning how to listen” (p. 48). According to Powney and Watts (1987) skills such as knowing how to listen and being competent can be overcome only by practising interviewing.

Interest in the co-construction of talk in interviews directed attention to the need to identify the role of interviewer and the possible pre-existing relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee in applied linguistics (Mann, 2011). The focus on a “pre-existing and personal relationship as part of the background information” (p. 11) in applied linguistics can provide evidence on how the talk is influenced by this relationship. Mann (2011) cites Palfreyman (2005) and Garton and Copland’s (2010) work on how prior or no prior relationships might affect the development of relationships during fieldwork. The student teachers participating in this study knew me in person beforehand because I used to work at the department as a research assistant, yet I had never taught them. The tutor, however, knew me well enough because he taught me on a couple of courses during my undergraduate study at the same university.

The language of the interaction is another important issue to take into consideration while conducting interviews. Mann (2010) suggests that the language in which the interview is conducted is crucial to understand the interaction and yet it does not receive the attention it deserves. He particularly draws attention to the issue of choice of the language of the interview and its possible consequences. In this study,

I conducted the interviews in Turkish upon the request of the interviewees. However, during the course of the interviews, occasional code switching occurred because the student teachers felt necessary to refer to particular terms in English as they could not come up with a Turkish equivalent or for convenience. As my aim was to elicit relevant and rich information from the student teachers, I complied with their choice, recognising that their greater facility in Turkish would enable them to make points more precisely and with more sensitivity to shades of meaning and the force of their statements. After I had conducted the interviews, the translation process took place, which was challenging to manage. There were several expressions that I found challenging to translate at first because I did not want to airbrush or underestimate the meaning and therefore the contribution they would make to the understanding of my discussion. I could only cope with these complexities by re-reading and listing possible equivalences for particular words and re-evaluate them within the context they are used.

One example of the challenges faced in translations of the data was to choose the right word for the feelings student teachers used to describe particular situations. For instance, I put a lot of thought into the translation of the description ST3 provided in her stimulated recall interview of her supervisor's treatment of her students. According to ST3, her supervisor was intimidating her students by using strong language from time to time and the exact expression for her description is *çok sert fırçalamak* which literally translates into 'brushing hard' in Turkish and yet the intended meaning is to be mad with someone, using strong language. There were a couple of options for me to use such as *insulting the students with harsh words, using*

strong language or *abusing the students with anger*. I discussed this with my supervisor and when I re-watched the interview and the actual event in the classroom which led ST3 to make that comment, I figured that what made her upset about that situation was the fact that her supervisor *scolded her students severely* in Turkish. It made her uncomfortable that her supervisor used the mother tongue to scold her students from time to time. Therefore, I came to the conclusion that I should use *scold severely* instead of *insult* as the point there was to describe the event rather than speculating over the supervisor's intention.

Another complexity that I had to manage was the nature of my questioning the interviewees. My aim was to conduct semi-structured interviews in order to explore the act of code switching in the classroom, therefore, my questions circulated around the event of code switching. However, on several occasions, student teachers tended to drift away from the main topic of discussion, mainly to talk about experiences which were not necessarily related to code switching. I refrained from interrupting their talk assuming that any kind of experience could provide me with a clearer understanding of their approach to teaching. I occasionally used probes to disclose underlying points that could be useful to shed a light on my actual interest, but as far as possible I tried not to be directive in my questioning, allowing them to identify and sometimes discover points of interest. The stimulated recall interviews were more challenging since there were more room for drifting away from the subject as I encouraged student teachers to interrupt the tape to discuss their actions and the reasons behind them without indicating to them at any point when it would be appropriate to interrupt it.

During both individual interviews and stimulated recall interviews I conducted with student teachers, I avoided directive questioning as much as possible as this could result in receiving biased or misleading judgements from them. However, on particular occasions, I used my judgement and I either rephrased my questions based on the previous answers I had received from student teachers and/or directed them to get back to the main topic of discussion. My purpose in doing that was not to direct the student teachers in order to receive the responses I expected to hear, but it was rather to have a coherent flow of discussion, to ensure the topic focus, and to direct attention to particular interesting ideas that might need more exploration. Inevitably, some degree of direction is involved in all interviewing, but when analysing my transcripts I tried to remain aware of this in order to avoid attributing claims to the student teachers that might have been prompted by the nature of my questioning.

In addition to the roles mentioned above, the interviewer has other roles such as analyst and presenter of the data. Rapley (2001) argues that interviewee talk “should not be viewed as decontextual: it is always produced in the negotiation with the interviewer” (p. 317) and “extracts from interviews should always be presented in the context in which they occurred, with the question that prompted the talk as well as the talk that follows being offered” (p. 319). The point Rapley (2001) makes is significant for my study because the interview data are expected to throw light on classroom code switching practices in the classroom. Therefore, the analysis and representation should be sensitive to the relevant context.

3.5.6 Ethical Issues

As a part of social research, qualitative interviewing also includes ethical issues that have to be considered very carefully. As the studies in applied linguistics involve people's personal ideas, values even actions, the 'ethical stakes' need to be recognised (Dornyei, 2007), and. Rubin and Rubin (2005) consider the ethical issues in interviewing as the responsibility of researcher toward his/her conversational partner (p .97).

Gillham (2005) suggests the first step in recognizing the importance of ethics in interviewing is 'identifying yourself as a researcher'. This includes being honest, clear and consistent about the purposes and the procedures of the research. The storing and analysing of personal research data should be considered and presented explicitly, taking key points such as confidentiality, anonymity, security, publication, summary publicity, exceptional uses and data lifetime into consideration. Similarly, Dornyei (2007) makes a list of 'sensitive aspects' of research. The list shares similar points such as anonymity, ownership of the data, handling the collected data and data collection methods. He also discusses to what extent the information obtained from the interview is shared, the relationships between the researcher and the participants and finally the importance of careful consideration of the outcomes.

More recent guidelines have been suggested by Kvale and Brinkmann (2009), who conceptualized ethical issues concerning the interviews within the framework of the

American Psychological Association (2002), Eisner and Peshkin (1990) and Guidelines for the Protection of Human Subjects (1992). These issues involve informed consent, confidentiality, consequences and the role of the researcher. Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) present a list of questions regarding the ethical issues to take into account at the start of the study. This list forms a useful practical guide for researchers.

For this study, the participant student teachers and the tutor were informed of the data collection, analysis and the presentation procedures. The participants were all provided with written information sheets both in Turkish and English. Additional information about the content of the study was also provided to the participants when requested. After an information session, participants were asked to sign consent forms. It was made clear that participants could leave the study at any time and without any negative consequences for them. The interviews were conducted in an office at the university faculty in which the students were still going. The choice of the place was left to the students and they were allowed to select somewhere on the university campus convenient for them. Particular care was taken that the data gathered from the interviews would not be shared to any third parties except for the researcher and the supervisor of the researcher. All participants and local details were anonymized and the data were securely stored by researcher.

3.5.7 Validity and Reliability Issues in Interviewing

Validity and reliability in scientific research are relevant to all research but are most closely associated with the positivist tradition and quantitative studies (Silverman, 1993; Gillham, 2005; Dornyei, 2007; Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009). The term validity stands for “the strength and soundness of statement; in the social sciences validity usually means whether a method investigates what purports to investigate” (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009, p. 327) and is “another word for truth” (Silverman, 2005, p. 210). Reliability in research indicates “the extent to which our measurement instruments and procedures produce consistent results in a given population in different circumstances” (Dornyei, 2007, p. 50).

All research tries to find the truth in its own way; however, in order to be valid, what should be done depends on the research methods used. Because the terms *validity* and *reliability* belong to the quantitative research and positivist tradition, what they expect for interview data to be valid is being able to ‘standardise’ the generated data (Silverman, 1993), which is possible only in the case of structured interviews. Therefore, positivist researchers approach unstructured or semi-structured interviews with suspicion. In the light of this, suspicion, many qualitative researchers do not consider that the terms *validity* and *reliability* reflect the needs and purposes of qualitative research. Instead, qualitative researchers suggested different ways to define validity and reliability in qualitative terms. Dornyei (2007) summarizes these proposals as ‘trustworthiness’, ‘authenticity’, ‘credibility’, ‘rigour’, and ‘veracity’ for validity. He also mentions the attempts to

match other quantitative terms with qualitative terms such as 'transferability' for external validity and "dependability" for reliability. Having said that, it cannot be argued that there is a consensus among the researchers on using these terms for the validity and reliability; however, the importance of ensuring "the quality of research in qualitative inquiry" seems to be widely accepted (Richards, 2003; Dornyei, 2007; Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009).

There are two important taxonomies for qualitative research quality: Lincoln and Guba's 'taxonomy of quality criteria' (1985) and Maxwell's taxonomy of validity in qualitative research (1992). Lincoln and Guba's taxonomy includes the credibility (or truth value which stands for 'internal validity'), transferability (or applicability which stands for 'external validity'), dependability (or consistency which stands for 'reliability') and confirmability (or neutrality of findings which stands for 'objectivity') (Dornyei, 2007). Maxwell's (1992) taxonomy is concerned with validity in qualitative research. Descriptive validity focuses on the accuracy of the interviewee's accounts while interpretive validity is concerned with the "tangible events, behaviours, or objects and... the quality of the portrayal of this participant perspective" (p. 58). Generalizability is concerned with being able to generalize the results of the study within the community (internal generalizability) and in other communities or institutions (external generalizability). Lastly, evaluative validity focuses on the assessment methods of the researcher and also how accurate the researcher draws conclusions from the analysis of the data. In order to foster validity and reliability checks, Dornyei suggests "respondent feedback" and "peer checking" (pp. 60, 61). 'Respondent feedback' can be a useful way to secure validity

and reliability; however 'peer checking' might give rise to some ethical issues because of the 'ownership' and 'handling' of the data (Dorneyi, 2007). While every effort was made to meet the criteria specified above in my study peer checking was not used because the interviews and stimulated recall already complemented one another.

3.6 Stimulated Recall Methodology

In this section I will present issues related to stimulated recall methodology; how it emerged, its characteristics and its procedures in L2 research.

3.6.1 Background of Stimulated Recall Methodology

Stimulated recall methodology, which is regarded as one of the subsets of introspective research methods, aims to investigate the thought processes of participants had while performing a task or an activity (Gass and Mackey, 2000; Lyle, 2003; Reitano, 2006; Polio, Gass and Chapin, 2006; Fox-Turnbull, 2009) and has its origins in psychology. Stough (2001) notes that the method 'stimulated recall' was first described by Benjamin Bloom in 1953 as a result of usage of audiotaped lectures at the university as stimuli to help students recall several parts of the lesson such as activities, gestures and points to talk over. Before going into detail on stimulated recall methodology, I begin by introducing introspective methods generally, showing how stimulated recall emerged from the introspective context.

3.6.2 Introspective Methods

The need for using introspective methods came to the foreground after the realisation of the “limitations of restricting our study to observation of behaviour” (Cohen, 1987, p. 82). Originally it was psychologists who felt the need of “observations on thinking that would allow tracing the intermediate steps of the thought processes” after the “era of behaviourism” (Ericsson and Simon, 1987, p. 24). The thought processes involved are also referred as mentalistic reflections as well and categorised as methods of introspection. According to the *Concise Oxford English Dictionary* (cited in Gass and Mackey, 2000), the term ‘introspection’ refers to “the examination or observation of one’s mental processes” (p. 1) and assumes that “a person can observe what takes place in consciousness in much the same way as one can observe events in the external world” (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p. 3). The acceptance of the significance and usefulness of examining the reflection on thought processes led to the discussion of ‘verbalization of thought’ suggested by Ericsson and Simon (1987), which became a type of introspection and contributed to the emergence of stimulated recall. In the next section I will discuss verbal reporting briefly because of its relevance to stimulated recall.

3.6.2.1 Verbal Reporting

Verbal reporting is regarded as “a special type of introspection” (Gass and Mackey, 2000, p.11) and has been used by several psychology researchers for a variety of purposes such as the analysis of problem solving, clinical analyses of thought, and analyses of the development of children’s thinking (Ericsson and Simon, 1987).

Ericsson and Simon (1987) suggest a model for information processing of verbal reporting, which they describe as follows:

To obtain verbal reports, as new information (thoughts) enters attention, the subjects should verbalize the corresponding thought or thoughts. According to this verbal report procedure the new incoming information is *maintained* (original in italics) in attention until the corresponding verbalization is completed. (p. 32)

The basis of the model they present is silent thinking. The silent cognitive process is related to “heeded information” (p. 32) and is vocalised in the next step, which is called “talk-aloud” (p. 32). The step after talk aloud is the “think aloud” in which “subjects must convert the heeded information into a verbalizable form to vocalize it” (p. 32). Gass and Mackey (2000) interpret the model suggested by (Ericsson and Simon, 1987) as getting more demanding in terms of complexity.

Another categorization of verbal report data was suggested by Cohen (1987, 1998). This categorization has been adapted in second language research as well as that of Ericsson and Simon’s (1987). These categorizations are “self-report, self-observation and self-revelation” (p. 84). Self-report basically stands for the general information participants give about performing a task. Self-observation aims to reveal either introspective (while the task is being carried out) or retrospective (after a while – from 20 seconds to days, even weeks in which is case it is usually called ‘delayed retrospective’) thoughts. Self-revelation refers to think-aloud protocol; in other

words 'a think aloud protocol' is one in which the participant simply talks about the thoughts while performing a task, thus engaging in a form of self-revelation. The participant simply talks about thoughts while performing a task.

Verbal reporting models have been used in several L2 research studies and the range of these studies is presented in Gass and Mackey (2002).

It is fair to say that models and categorizations on verbal reporting constituted a foundation for the stimulated recall methodology generally used in L2 research in terms of valuing the participant's reflections on performing a task. I now turn to the discussion of stimulated recall as such and its relevance to L2 research.

3.6.3 Stimulated Recall - Characteristics and Relevance to L2 research

Stimulated recall is one of the introspective procedures in which participants are prompted to recall thoughts they had while performing a task by means of replaying audiotaped or videotaped extracts of the action or using a visual aid and asking them to self-report on their actions as they see or hear the recording (Gass and Mackey, 2000; Stough, 2001; Lyle, 2003). As the name suggests, the assumption of stimulated recall is that a "tangible reminder" (Gass and Mackey) or any visual reminder of the event (Polio, Gass and Chaplin, 2006) will stimulate recall of the thoughts of the completed event. As Gass and Mackey (2000) point out, "the theoretical foundation for stimulated recall relies on an information processing approach whereby use of and access to short-term memory is enhanced, if not guaranteed, by a prompt that aids in the recall of information" (p. 17).

The employment of stimulated recall in L2 research dates back to the shift to studying teachers in classrooms rather than in artificial environments, an approach which started to become more common in the early 1980s (Stough, 2001). One of the reasons for this is technical: the developments in audiotaping and videotaping technologies enabled researchers to obtain more high quality recordings. Another one is related to the opportunities it offers to various research contexts. Stough (2001) notes that in some situations think-aloud protocols could not be used because it would not be possible and would interfere with the performance of the participants since it is impossible for a teacher to teach (perform a task) and provide verbal report at the same time. In stimulated recall, however, after the recording sessions, recall sessions are held and participants are asked to talk about their thought processes while watching / listening to the original actions. The responses are also audio or video recorded for transcription and analysis.

The features mentioned above led stimulated recall method technology to be used in research into teaching, teacher training (Peterson and Clark, 1978) and teachers' decision making and interactive thoughts (Calderhead, 1981). My study makes use of stimulated recall in order to unearth the thoughts of student teachers on their code switching, what they thought and aimed to achieve when they did it and also, where possible, what they thought its possible consequences might be (though where this does not emerge as part of retrospection, it may be invited in the form of reflection). In doing so, it shares the main characteristics of stimulated recall and I now turn to discuss these in more detail.

3.6.3.1 Characteristics of Stimulated Recall

Several characteristics of stimulated recall are suggested by Gass and Mackey (2000). The foundational characteristic, as mentioned earlier, is that the recall session is conducted after the task is completed. Another characteristic is called the “degree of support” (p. 25) provided to the participant. The degree is related to the type of the stimuli present: a video, audio recording of their speaking, a picture they draw or a piece of writing they made. Gass and Mackey discuss characterization of stimulated recall and support mechanisms in terms of an adaptation of a classification scheme from Faerch and Kasper (1987). The mechanism includes relationship to the specific action, temporal relationship to action, participant training, procedural structure, stimulus for recall and initiation of questions/recall interactions.

Relationship to specific action stands for the relationship between the focus of recall and the information needed to obtain this through the recall procedure. Gass and Mackey (2000) describe this as “the attempt to identify the cognitive information that is the focus of the recall, in terms of whether or not it is related to a specific action” (p. 48). In my study, the focus is on the code switching occasions of the student teacher. Therefore the sections in which I expected the student teacher to talk about the most were the ones where they switched codes. Temporal relationship to action deals with the time lapse between the recall session and the actual event. The key issues are “the length of time period that elapses between the event and the recall, what sort of memory structures are being accessed and the

efficacy of the support in overcoming any delay” (pp. 49-50). Short time lapses (little or no gap), also known as ‘consecutive recall’, are favoured by most of the researchers to make recall more reliable. Other types of recall in addition to consecutive recall are delayed recall (recall obtained the next day) and nonrecent recall (more than a week). The recall type used in my study is nonrecent recall. The first recall session I conducted with the student teachers was four weeks after the actual event. Although this is in some respects the least favourable condition, it was necessary because of the time required to identify relevant extracts from the different videos, something which could only be completed when the relevant data collection period had been completed. However, as I had videotaped the classes and chosen the extracts carefully, participants had rich stimuli, both visual and audio, which compensated at least to some extent for the time that had elapsed since the recorded events and enabled me to obtain rich insights about the event.

Participant training addresses to “how well participants are trained to interact with the stimulus” (p. 50). Gass and Mackey (2000) note the difference between the training and the instructions given to the participants before the session. They argue that in some research designs (however they do not make it clear which ones) participants should be trained by being shown videotapes of other people carrying out stimulated recall session or being given diagrams or transcriptions. On the other hand, Ericsson and Simon (1987) do not think the lack of participant training has an effect on the validity of the data on the grounds that it might only affect the completeness of the data. In my study, student teachers were not trained for the

stimulated recall in any way, yet were given clear instructions on how I would conduct it.

Procedural structure addresses to the instrument used for the recall session. Highly structured instruments include questionnaires with multiple choice items and low structure involves open interviews without pre-determined questions prepared by researcher. The procedural structure of my study tends to lie closer to the low structure; however, despite not being written down on paper, I had several questions in my mind regarding code switching and particular bits and pieces of the lessons which I thought it would be worth talking over to lead me to get answers for the student teachers' actual thoughts and feelings about the language exchanges.

Stimulus for recall, as the name implies, stand for the stimulus used to "activate or refresh recollection of cognitive processes so that they can be accurately recalled and verbalized" (p. 53). Any audiotapes, videotapes, written products, and computer-captured data are regarded as stimuli to be used in sessions. In my study I used videotapes of the lessons student teachers taught.

The last characteristic is initiation of questions/recall interaction. This refers to the interactor who initiates the interaction: researcher or the participant. According to Gass and Mackey (2000) initiation could be done by researcher, participant or both of them and their experiences showed that learner initiated replays of videotapes were only about 10% of all replays even though participants all knew that they could stop the tape whenever they wanted to. This is surely related to social, power

and cultural variables. In line with Gass and Mackey' (2000), I ensured that the participants understood the shared responsibility for replaying or stopping the tape to talk over the segment we were watching; however, I believe participant initiated interaction occurred far less frequently than researcher initiated interaction.

3.6.3.2 Validity and Reliability Issues in Stimulated Recall in L2 Research

Due to the opportunities it offers to obtain insights in various research contexts, employment of stimulated recall in L2 research has become more common since the early 1980s (Stough, 2001). The growing use of the methodology has brought its own validity and reliability issues that need to be addressed. In this section, I present the issues relevant to my study and discuss the methods used to avoid potential problems.

Gass and Mackey (2000) refer to the issues dealing with validity and reliability in stimulated recall as 'problem areas'. They organize these problem areas as "procedural problems with the use of the methodology", "inter-rater reliability" and "conceptual discussion of stimulated recall to enhance empirical research". The procedural problems mainly include the timing, recall questions and language of the recall session, all of which might have an effect on validity and reliability. Gass and Mackey (2000) suggest that under or overestimating time allocated to sessions might be a potential pitfall for the procedure. The time for the recall procedure along with the time to show stimulus should be arranged in order to allow sufficient space to both participant and the researcher. However, the time allocated should not

be too long so as to cause fatigue for both parties. The amount of time allocated for the tasks depends on the stimulus and in my case, the stimuli were the lessons they taught. My sessions with each participant took around two and a half hours. Participants were informed that in the event that they felt tired, they were always welcome to stop the session to go on another time. In fact, two participants asked to continue the sessions the next day and this was arranged.

Another area Gass and Mackey (2000) identify as potentially problematic is the organization of recall questions. As the aim of the recall process is to unearth the thought processes of the participants while performing a task, so directing the right questions is important otherwise “the method itself will have no validity unless one can be reasonably sure that accurate recall is taking place” (p. 89). Recall questions become more important when the time between the actual event and recall procedure increases. Hence, the researcher should review and examine the stimuli before the session and create a mental or written question list. In my study, as my stimuli comprised video recordings of the lessons, I watched each session and took notes on particular parts of the lesson where code switching occurred and thought of questions and prompts I might need to address to participants while watching the videos. However, I did not limit the session according to my notes and encouraged participants to stop the video whenever they wanted to say something about a particular event. Even though not all the points they raised were directly relevant to my topic of study, I did not intervene because I did not want to discourage them from talking about their experiences which might indirectly be relevant to my understanding of the interaction in class.

The last procedural area is the language of the recall session. Gass and Mackey (2000) argue that carrying out recall sessions might cause concerns whether they are conducted in the L1 or L2. If the session is carried out in the L2, the concern is about the ability of participants to express themselves. On the other hand, when a session is held in the L1, concerns about the quality of interpretation emerge. Gass and Mackey (2000) suggest that every research setting has its own particularities and one should “consider carefully the implications of performing the recall in the L2 versus the L1” (p. 99). In this study, I conducted the recall sessions in the L1 because the participants suggested that they would feel more comfortable if they were allowed to speak in Turkish. However, during almost all sessions they used both the L1 and the L2 because the recall questions were mainly about code switching. Thus, while they were talking about their experiences, they had to use particular English terms from time to time in order to make their point more clearly. In terms of the quality of interpretation, since I am fluent in both languages I was able to adjust as necessary to the language used when interpreting claims.

3.7 Thematic Analysis

In this section, I will discuss thematic analysis in qualitative research, its characteristics and its procedures.

3.7.1 What is Thematic Analysis?

Thematic analysis is one of the most commonly used approaches in data analysis in qualitative research (Holstein and Gubrium, 1997) aiming to identify, analyse and

report themes within data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). It is also defined as “a way of seeing” by Boyatzis (1998 p. 1). Boyatzis (1998) explains the way of seeing as making observation, recognizing an important codable moment, encoding that moment and lastly interpreting that moment. It is a method which organizes and describes data set in rich detail and “frequently goes further than this, and interprets various aspects of the research topic” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 79). This widely used method of analysis is regarded as one of the foundational methods for qualitative analysis (Aronson, 1994; Boyatzis, 1998; Attride-Stirling, 2001; Roulston, 2001; Braun and Clarke, 2006) and I use thematic analysis as a method to identify, group and systematically interpret the ideas that I obtain from the interviews and the stimulated recall data.

3.7.2 Characteristics of Thematic Analysis

The foundations of thematic analysis as a method share common features with other approaches in qualitative research such as grounded theory (Corbin and Strauss, 1990), pattern coding (Miles and Huberman, 1994) and many others (Attride-Stirling, 2001). However, according to Attride-Stirling, thematic analysis did not develop from the approaches mentioned, but from the principles of argumentation theory introduced by Toulmin (1958) Argumentation theory aims to analyse negotiation processes by exploring the connections between “explicit statements and the implicit meanings in people’s discourse” Attride-Stirling (2001, p. 387). In this theory, data is regarded as the evidence to support an argument or claim and warrants are produced to support the claim. Thematic analysis also aims to analyse connections between the statements and meanings of people’s discourse, yet it

differs from argumentation theory in that it seeks to understand a phenomenon rather than to develop arguments between conflicting definitions of a phenomenon. Toulmin's descriptions provide a basis for thematic analysis but it has been developed and adapted to the needs of the research that demands identification, organization and interpretation of the data. Having said that, thematic analysis has been regarded as a "poorly demarcated and rarely acknowledged" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 77) technique on which little has been written to help people learn how to use it (Boyatzis, 1998, p. vii) despite being used widely as a method of analysis for qualitative research. The need to position thematic analysis in qualitative research has led to the formulation of the characteristics and processes involved in applying the method by researchers using it.

One of the characteristics of thematic analysis is its flexibility (Braun and Clarke, 2006). This is mainly because thematic analysis can be used in two branches of qualitative methods; theory-driven or epistemological approaches and data driven analysis. In fact, Boyatzis (1998) takes account of this flexibility within the framework of three distinct stages of using thematic analysis. According to his framework, Stage I and Stage III are same whether analysis belongs to a theory or data-driven camp but at Stage II there are differences in approaching to the data. Stage I focuses on the decision of sampling and design and Stage III deals with validation and the use of the code. In Stage II, three different ways of producing thematic codes exist, which are theory-driven, prior data or prior research driven, and inductive or data driven. Boyatzis (1998) argues these approaches have their own benefits and challenges, though they all seek to move towards developing

theories. However, they differ in terms of the departure point to the data analysis. The difference depends on starting analysis with a theory or raw data. In this study, my approach to data analysis leans to the data-driven approach. I do not have a pre-determined theory or themes that informed my analysis of the data. Nevertheless, I aim to locate my findings within the literature, benefiting from established theoretical stands positioning my study in terms of the contributions I can make to those theories.

According to Boyatzis (1998) another characteristic of thematic analysis is its ability to offer communication between different methods used in a study. In other words, “it enables different qualitative methods to communicate with each other” Boyatzis (1998, p. vii). Researchers from various orientations and fields can use thematic analysis as a bridge to understand and interpret their findings (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Miller and Crabtree, 1992; Boyatzis, 1998). Therefore, it has become a method widely used by researchers from various disciplines. I use thematic analysis to analyse the interviews and stimulated recall interviews in my study. I anticipate that the findings and underpinnings I obtain as a result of this analysis will help me to construct a meaningful bridge between the findings from different data collection methods.

Given the characteristics of thematic analysis, it is important to consider the challenges one might confront and the efforts to eliminate these challenges. The most obvious challenge of thematic analysis is its likelihood of being interpreted as “unclear, almost foreign, airy-fairy” Labuschagne (2003) or as an “anything goes”

(Antaki et al., 2002) approach which is also a criticism sometimes applied to qualitative research generally. In order to eliminate these challenges, several guidelines, analysis procedures and step by step considerations have been suggested (Aronson, 1994; Boyatzis, 1998; Attride-Stirling, 2001; Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Braun and Clarke, 2006), though general agreement on how to use thematic analysis has yet not been reached despite its widespread use (Braun and Clarke, 2006). However, is important to account for the framework and the procedures followed in thematic analysis.

Almost all thematic analysis procedures suggested propose sensing a theme as the main step of the analysis. One has to decide what counts as a theme because the next steps will build upon this decision (Boyatzis, 1998; Attride-Stirling, 2001; Braun and Clarke, 2006). Attride-Stirling (2001) identifies this stage as the “basic theme” which is “derived from the textual data” and is “like a backing in that it is a statement of belief anchored around a central notion (the warrant) and contributes toward the signification of a super-ordinate theme” (pp. 388-389). According to Braun and Clarke (2006) “a theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set” (p. 82). A crucial issue to take into consideration in determining themes is code development. Boyatzis (1998) claims code development “helps if the raw information has been recorded with minimal or no processing” and “if the researcher has a grounding or training in the fundamentals and concepts of the fields relevant to the inquiry” (p. 9). According to Attride-Stirling (2001), the

code material stage includes coding the material, which means “dissecting the text into manageable and meaningful text segments” (p. 390).

Theme identification follows the initial code generating stage. This stage involves going through the codes identified and producing relevant and significant themes which are “specific enough to be discrete (non-repetitive) and broad enough to encapsulate a set of ideas contained in numerous text segments” (Attride-Stirling, 2001, p. 392). Braun and Clarke (2006) define the same procedure as re-focusing on the analysis with a “broader level of themes, rather than codes” (p. 89). After identifying preliminary themes, one should review (Braun and Clarke, 2006) refine and arrange themes (Attride-Stirling, 2001). At this stage, some themes detected before can be omitted, redeveloped or rearranged according to data and research questions. At this point, Braun and Clarke (2006) offer a two-level way of reviewing and refining the themes. Level one includes reading all collected extracts for the themes identified and seeing if they develop a pattern. Level two includes considering the validity of each theme in relation to the data set. The purpose of this action is to figure out if the selected themes represent the meaning of data completely. Similarly, Attride-Stirling (2001) calls this sub-stage “constructing the networks” (p. 392). This process includes arranging themes, selecting basic themes, rearranging into organizing themes, deducing global themes and verifying and refining the networks.

The defining and naming themes stage is basically identifying and describing what the themes are about and acknowledging which aspect of the data they capture

(Braun and Clarke, 2006). A similar stage is suggested as “describe and explore the thematic networks” by Attride -Sterling (2001). In this stage researcher describes the contents of the thematic network by referring to the extracts taken from the data and explores the network by determining underlying patterns beginning to emerge.

The last stage in thematic analysis is to ‘produce the report’ (Braun and Clarke, 2006), ‘summarize the thematic network and interpret patterns’ (Attride-Stirling, 2001) as well as ‘interpreting the information and themes in the context of a theory or conceptual framework’ (Boyatzis, 1998). In this stage, themes should be supported by relevant data extracts which should be interesting, non-repetitive and representative of the theme (Braun and Clarke, 2006). It should also include reference to the research questions and address the arguments connected to the purposes of the study, which is the most challenging part of the reporting. (Attride-Stirling, 2001). The stages I follow during the thematic analysis I conduct in my study cover the aspects from all the procedural guidelines mentioned. My approach to data is data-driven approach suggested by Boyatzis (1998) and benefits from the guidelines offered by Braun and Clarke (2006).

In this study I benefit from thematic analysis analysing data I obtained from individual interviews and stimulated recall interviews I conducted with student teachers. I first transcribed the whole interview and the stimulated recall interview I conducted with all five student teachers. As a first step of analysis for both type of interviews, I generated initial codes in the data. This helped me to recognize interesting features that could result in potential themes. Following this, I looked for

the ways I could generate any thematic maps related to the coded extracts. After identifying general themes, I defined and discussed these themes along with the relevant extracts from the data. A presentation of the outcome of the analysis is to be found in Appendices section (see Appendix 5, 6, 7, 8, 9).

One of the challenges I met during the analysis process was the grouping process of relevant codes and representing these on the thematic map. In order to overcome this challenge, I kept reviewing and eventually rewrote some of the themes I identified. Time-consuming though this process was, it not only gave me an on-going engagement with the data but also nurtured new realisations of the overall story of the analysis tells relating to the research questions I aimed to answer.

3.8 Concluding Remarks

In this study I aim to explore the interaction in EFL classrooms with specific focus on code switching and its relationship to student teachers' pedagogical decisions and the factors influencing these decisions in terms of their thinking. The methods I use consist of the analysis of lesson interactions in order to inform the selection of extracts for use in stimulated recall, and the thematic analysis of semi-structured interviews with the participant student whose lessons I video recorded. I came to this approach with no pre-determined assumptions about the interactional patterns I would find or the student teachers' potential views on code switching and how it affected their decisions while teaching. Although this was rather challenging, at the same time it provided rich documentation of a web of relationships involving teacher actions, their beliefs, and their relationship with their supervisors. The

methods I used in this study gave me an opportunity to explore these factors in a broader context in which code switching needs to be considered more than just a linguistic phenomenon observed in language classrooms. In the next chapter, I aim to present how this is experienced by the student teachers who participated in this study.

4. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis for this study includes transcriptions of lessons, stimulated recall interviews and individual interviews conducted with the student teachers. Lesson transcriptions consist of 21 classroom talks, four for each student teacher with the sole exception of one teacher who was video recorded five times. Another data set consists of stimulated recall interviews conducted with the teachers individually after the whole teaching process. The last data set consists of interviews conducted with each student teacher videotaped. In the next sections, I present analysis of each data set with the methods I used.

4.1 Conversation Analysis – Transcriptions of Classroom Talk

As discussed before, conversation analysis broadly investigates naturally occurring talk in interaction systematically (Seedhouse, 2004; Drew, 2005; ten Have, 2007; Hutchby and Wooffitt, 2008). CA methodology aims to understand a phenomenon by examining potential properties or patterns based on the interaction in transcripts and associate the sequential pattern with focused phenomenon (Drew, 2003). Having said that, my aim is not just documenting the sequences of code switching which is the central topic of attention in my study but using these as the basis for a broader investigation. At this point, my analysis benefits from the principles suggested by Wei (2002) and Seedhouse (2004) while employing CA.

According to Wei (2002) a CA analyst should apply an interpretational inductive reasoning to the extracts of transcriptions and reveal how speakers accomplish a task. In the analysis, I do not consider extracts belonging to a particular pattern as isolated occasions of code switching; on the contrary I try to interpret these occasions by examining the purpose and contribution they bring to interaction. Seedhouse (2004) suggests a CA practitioner should not approach data with pre-determined conceptions or theory. In analysis of classroom talk, I present the patterns I detected from the transcriptions. My aim at the end of the whole analysis procedure is to relate the findings I obtain from CA to the findings I gather from interviews and stimulated recall interviews.

4.2. Thematic Analysis – Transcriptions of Interviews and Stimulated Recall Interviews

Thematic analysis is a method for encoding, identifying, analysing and reporting themes in qualitative information (Boyatzis, 1998, Braun and Clarke, 2006). It aims to organize, describe, and interpret various aspects of a research topic (Boyatzis, 1998; Roulston, 2001; Stirling, 2001) and “acts like a translator of those speaking the language” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. vii). In this study I benefit from thematic analysis analysing data I obtained from individual interviews and stimulated recall interviews I conducted with student teachers. I used thematic analysis because of its flexibility, and because “it enables different qualitative methods to communicate with each other” Boyatzis (1998, p. vii). In this study, I use thematic analysis to connect interviews with stimulated recall interviews, and eventually with conversation analytic findings.

4.3. Procedure

Following the completion of full transcription, the next step in thematic analysis is to look for and notice patterns that might be potentially relevant and valuable for further analysis. However, thematic analysis is not just reading data over and over again to make a sense of it; it is a rather systematically developed procedure. Several guidelines and step by step procedures have been introduced by researchers (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006; Stirling, 2001; Boyatzis, 1998). In this study, I follow Braun and Clarke's (2006) procedure which reads as follows:

Phase	Description of the Process
1. Familiarizing yourself with your data:	Transcribing data, reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes:	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes:	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic map of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature,

	producing a scholarly report of the analysis.
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Table 5. Thematic Analysis Procedure (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 87)

By undertaking thematic analysis for the interviews and the stimulated recall interviews, I aim to answer the third, fourth and fifth research questions. For this purpose, I transcribed the whole interview and stimulated recall interview of all teachers. In the following sections, I present how the findings I obtained from the thematic analysis I applied on the interviews and the stimulated recall interviews correspond with each other.

4.4. Analytic Account of the Data

In this section I present the analysis of the emerging themes through related extracts I obtained from the data. The first theme is the relationship between code switching and grammar teaching. Student teachers frequently mentioned grammar as the major subject matter creating the need to code switch in interviews. The conversational analytic transcription of the data confirmed the student teachers in that code switching occurred most during grammar teaching sessions. However, bringing these findings together with the findings obtained from the stimulated recall interviews revealed that there is more involved than merely a relationship between code switching and the topic of the lesson, and that this is related to the construction of the identities of these teachers. The rest of the themes, namely, affective factors, student teachers' selves, and the influence of the supervisors also provide instances of classroom interaction and student teacher discussions that

suggest code switching might be a striking linguistic phenomenon pointing to aspects on teacher behaviour and the underlying reasons for them.

4.4.1. Grammar Teaching

In this section I present the relationship between the grammar teaching process and code switching. I discuss grammar teaching as a separate theme because exploring the instances of code switching during the instruction of grammatical rules along with the interviews and the stimulated recall interviews point to a broader picture of understanding student teachers' beliefs, how they see themselves as teachers and the affective factors influencing along the way. My starting point of dealing with grammar teaching as a theme was due to the fact that student teachers frequently expressed that they code switched while teaching grammar the most.

For instance, student teacher one, two and three clearly expressed the fact that they switched into Turkish most while they were teaching grammar. ST1 expresses this as follows:

The lessons I used most [Turkish] are most probably grammar lessons.

I can frankly say that I use Turkish most while teaching grammar.

ST2 has a similar attitude to Turkish usage while teaching grammar:

We once had observed another teacher. It was fun but she also used Turkish a lot. I mean almost all teachers use Turkish while teaching grammar.

I used Turkish most while introducing something new. It could be a grammar item students never heard before. At that situation I could use Turkish to give instructions what to use where.

ST3 also thinks that Turkish should be used while teaching grammar:

I also had to use Turkish while teaching grammar because it's hard for them to grasp those items in English, maybe it's abstract.

I absolutely believe that Turkish should be used while teaching grammar. But for other things like using course book, vocabulary, instructions...etc. I did not feel the need to use Turkish.

As seen above, these three teachers believe that Turkish should/has to be used while teaching grammar. This does not mean they are claiming that Turkish should only be used when teaching grammar but is exceptional in my data because it is the only aspect of teaching that, in the view of the teachers in the study, requires the use of Turkish. Even though they all believe that Turkish should be used while teaching grammar, there are indeed different nuances in the reasons they give for using it and how they feel about the process.

The most prominent themes emerging from these teachers' experiences while teaching grammar (obtained from the classroom extracts), and after teaching it (individual interviews and the stimulated recall interviews) are a) how the relationships with their supervisor teachers affect their approach to teaching

grammar, b) how they relate this to their own teaching identity and their own language learning process, and c) how their own feelings about the process come into play.

One of the instances where ST1 expresses the strain on her relationship with her supervisor emerges even before she teaches grammar for the first time. ST1 mentions how confused she was when she was told to teach 'Adverbial Clauses of Manner and Time' by the supervisor teacher. She implies that mentioning the form deductively while introducing a grammatical structure is labelling. She further elaborates on this as follows:

Then when I use labelling, students do not get it when they encounter the same thing in different occasions. I can give you a very particular example on that. I remember teaching adverbs of manner and adverbs of time ((She refers to adverbial clauses of manner and time here)). In both cases, I can frankly tell you that before teaching these, when our supervisor teacher told me to teach them, I did not have the faintest idea what they were all about. Seriously. After thinking to myself, I do not remember such a thing, what the heck it is all about, I referred to a grammar book right away. I came across as if/as though in manner section. I thought to myself, oh that? I mean, when she said adverbs of manner, I did not know it was labelled such even after my four years at ELT department.

ST1 claims that teaching grammar by 'labelling' grammatical items does not help the students' learning process. On the contrary, she says labelling is likely to confuse them. Even though she claims that she was asked not to use 'labelling' by her supervisor teacher, she points out the fact that the supervisor teacher assigned her

the topic using labelling, to which she responded with frustration. In addition to this, her own knowledge of English grammar came into play and she had to refer to a grammar book herself to see what the label 'Adverbial Clauses of Manner and Time' meant. This frustration prompted ST1 to reflect on her approach to teaching and the relationship between her lack of comprehension and what was being expected of her students. In other words, the inadequacy of her own subject knowledge becomes a driving force to assess her teaching. How are her students supposed to get their head around if she introduces a grammatical structure by using labelling while she struggles with it herself? Interestingly, even though ST1 does not agree with the way the supervisor introduces her topic, she does exactly the same thing as her supervisor does while teaching:

021	T1: No, ok. Let's start then. Actually it is
022	<i>Starts writing Adverbial Clauses of Manner on the</i>
023	<i>board.</i>
024	T1: While I'm writing you can note down.
025	<i>Writes as if-as though</i>
026	T1: These two are same. OK? Same. Err ((clears her throat)) We use
027	as if and as though -err- while we are talking about the -err-
028	real situations and unreal situations and probable ones ok?
029	Means -err- sanki, -miş gibi [as if, so to say]ok? Let's start
030	with examples. First real examples, real situations.
031	<i>Writes 'for real situations' and examples on the board</i>
032	<i>while uttering the examples at the same time.</i>
033	T1: ok. Erm. There is a smell in the room. I think someone has been
034	cooking. Ok. There is a smell in the room. I think - there is
035	someone has been cooking. I just predict, I just think. I don't
036	know someone has been cooking or not, ok? And we change these
037	sentences we will connect with as if-as though. Errm. It smells
038	as if or as though someone has been cooking. Ok. It smells as
039	if or as though someone has been cooking. Sanki biri yemek
040	pişiriyormuş gibi kokuyor [It smells as if someone has been
041	cooking]ok? Is it clear?
042	<i>No response</i>

Table 6. Extract from ST1's Third Teaching Session

As seen in the extract, the first thing ST1 does is to write on the board the label, Adverbial Clauses of Manner (line 22), which is followed by 'as if' and 'as though' (line 24). She starts explaining in English (lines 25-26) and yet switches to almost

Turkish immediately (line 29). After introducing the topic, she continues with examples and starts explaining real situations in English first, again (line 32). At the example phase, she switches to Turkish once again for further explanation. Upon asking for clarification from the students on line 38, she does not receive a response.

ST1 discussed this event in her stimulated recall interview as follows:

R: Here I thought you would write as if / as though on board right away.

T: No I wrote this because, I wrote Adverbial Clauses of Manner, because I saw my supervisor teacher writing like this at previous lesson. I mean she wrote the title exactly like this.

R: For what purpose do you think?

T: It is garbage actually. I didn't like it at the time either.

Table 7. ST1's SR response to Extract on Table 6

The extract reveals that even if ST1 does not agree with the supervisor's way of introducing the topic, she does it the way the supervisor does. Complying with the supervisor's instructions, albeit reluctantly seems to give rise to a conflict within herself. It is important to note that even though these teachers have an approach to teaching that in general reflects their own beliefs, in this instance ST1 is prepared to do something that she considers as 'garbage' simply in order to comply with the requirement of her supervisor.

A similar attitude can be observed in ST2's case. She taught the (so –called) 'Simple Future Tense' on her first teaching session and is not happy with her supervisor's suggestions:

R: You also introduce what you are going to cover in this lesson as we are going to learn, right?

T: Our supervisor told us how to deal with this; I mean in a step by step manner what to say, to do..etc. It's completely not my choice. In my opinion, starting from the context, in

other words following an indirect, inductive pattern is much better. But the supervisor told me to start with a comparison between will and going to right away. At the same time we are told to teach a thing at a time.

R: Yes, one thing at a time.

T: Actually this is what is supposed to happen but the supervisor told me to get into details of the differences between will and going to.

Table 8. ST2's SR response

It can be inferred from extract presented in table 8 that ST2, like ST1 follows her supervisor's instructions on how to introduce a grammar topic completely even though she does not agree with her approach at all. ST2 claims that grammar should be contextualised rather than being explained in a step-by-step manner. However, she complies with the supervisor's method. When it comes to Turkish use in the classroom, however, she resists the supervisor's strong suggestion to use Turkish and avoids Turkish as much as possible. In other words, she prefers the tutor's suggestion on the code choice. It can be inferred that she resists the use of Turkish in the classroom but not the method of introducing grammar. Even though she tries the supervisor's suggestion of translation, towards the end of the first lesson, she sticks to English which is a slightly different position from that of ST1's.

38	T: And second usage of will. We use will when we talk about
39	spontaneously. Anlık [Spontaneouslyly]
40	T: Anlık bir cümle, önceden düşünmediniz. Anında bir olay oldu, onun
41	için söylüyorsunuz. [A spontaneous sentence, you did not think
42	through before. Something happens all of a sudden and at that point
43	you use will.] For example the phone is ringing. And you are the
44	nearest person to it. And you say 'OK, I'll answer it'.

Table 9. Extract from ST2's First Teaching Session

In extract on table 9, ST2 introduces the second use of will in English. She continues to do so even though she said that her supervisor asked her to translate every single word into Turkish. Then she explains what 'spontaneity' means in detail (lines 40

and 41). The explanation is followed by a relevant example. ST2 discusses this extract as follows:

<p><i>R: Now you introduced will. Here you don't ask meanings?</i></p> <p><i>T: I think it's because I conditioned myself to use Turkish and then didn't find it logical to ask meanings over again. On the way I think I gave up.</i></p> <p><i>R: I wonder why you gave up.</i></p> <p><i>T: Maybe because of time constraints or maybe I felt like they were following my point at the time.</i></p> <p><i>R: Well, can you figure out if they got your point?</i></p> <p><i>T: I think it's the looks. Sometimes they look very confused, surprised. Sometimes they don't react, nod...etc. At those occasions, I feel like they are not following me. Of course this does not mean I am always fully aware of this situation.</i></p>
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Table 10. ST2's SR response to Extract on Table 9

ST2 prefers explanation in English first but refers to direct translation out of frustration as she puts it. ST2 also mentions the huge influence of the supervisor teacher on her way of introducing the topic. She uses code switching for explanation and clarification purposes just like ST1 but additionally she mentions time constraints, which is a different dimension, suggesting that there were practical reasons for the switch. Her comments also reflect her sensitivity to student responses in that she observes their actions as indicative of whether she is communicating her message to her students. This contrasts with ST3, who accepted her supervisor's position. She mentions the influence of the supervisor and the issue of labelling as well:

Our supervisor mostly uses Turkish in teaching grammar with the fifth graders. Even though there is not much talking, she tries to use English with other things, such as giving instructions. That's why the students were used to it. I also had to use Turkish while teaching grammar because it's hard for them to grasp those items

in English, maybe it's abstract. I have to say our supervisor asked us to use Turkish anyway. At some point one has to do it. For instance I introduced passive forms one day and I had to use direct translation. Otherwise students are appalled. It was their first time and they also did not know the equivalent Turkish grammar labelling for it. So it was necessary to use Turkish there. I discussed this with the supervisor afterwards and she also agreed that she was using the oldest methods and added that that's the way the students understand the best, other ways confuse them. I think her stand point is a bit extreme but for this occasion she was right.

It can be inferred from ST3's ideas that even though she thinks that her supervisor uses 'the oldest methods', she is prepared to suspend her own negative view of this where grammar teaching is concerned. She regards switching to Turkish in the classroom as using 'the oldest methods' and yet agrees with the supervisor on the need for it. ST3 uses the term 'labelling' in a different context than that referred to by ST1. ST3 is not against using labels to identify grammar topics, on the contrary she thinks providing the students with Turkish equivalents of grammar topics is necessary. ST1, on the other hand, does not want to use any kind of labelling if it can be avoided. It is also important to note that ST3 discusses her opinions with her supervisor in terms of whether or not to use Turkish in the classroom or not. It seems reasonable to suggest that the discussion of opinions on code switching, be it for or against the supervisor's methods, reveals the importance of discovering their own selves and beliefs as a teacher for these student teachers. The extract below shows an example how ST3 introduces 'be going to' to refer to future events. She

uses only English and resists the suggestion of the supervisor to use Turkish, thus revealing a determination to use her own method:

01	T3: You learned that be going to is used for err for our future plans
02	and intentions. OK, right? And now I will write a question.
03	STS: No response.
04	T3 : ((writes 'What are you going to do in this summer?' and draws a
05	circle on the blackboard to start a brainstorming activity)). OK
06	what are you going to do this summer?
07	ST1: I am going to go to--football
08	T3: Train?
09	ST1: Train? Yes.
10	T3: OK what else?
11	ST2: I am going to go to Italy.
12	T3: Yes.

Table 11. Extract from ST3's First Teaching Session

Extract on table 11 shows a follow-up lesson to ST2's referring to future events lesson (Table 9). ST3 repeats the English words (future plans and intentions) as ST2 taught them. The students do not seem to have a problem. The important thing is the fact that she does not want to translate the words and sticks to this decision.

However, the following extract shows that she changes her approach:

17	T: OK read your sentence.
18	S1: I love English lesson very much.
19	T: What was your name?
20	S1: Barış.
21	T: OK now I will report it to you. Barış says that I love English
22	lesson very much ((writes sentence on the blackboard))
23	Barış said that he loved English lesson very much. OK what's the
24	Turkish translation of it? OK Barış?
25	S2: Barış dedi ki o İngilizce dersini çok seviyor. [Barış said that
26	he loved English lesson very much]
27	T: Yes, right.

Table 12. Extract from ST3's Fourth Teaching Session

Extract on table 12 illustrates that responses to supervisor's suggestions are not necessarily consistent. In a lesson where ST3 teaches reported speech (or indirect speech) she reports the sentences produced by the students (line 21). Right after this she reports the sentence in English and asks the students for a translation (line 24). The students translate the sentences and the sequence goes on and on this way. This

way of covering the lesson is quite different from the way this teacher taught when covering future events. In the latter, she deliberately avoids switching to Turkish whereas the first half of the lesson comprises direct translation into Turkish.

Another example of this approach can be observed in the extract below:

41	T: Ufuk told us that he wanted to hug a monkey. OK what's the
42	Turkish translation of it?
43	S3: Ufuk bize maymuna sarılmak istediğini anlattı. [Ufuk told us he
44	wanted to hug a monkey]
45	T: Yes, OK the next sentence.

Table 13. Extract from ST3's Fourth Teaching Session

Extract on table 13 displays an example of how ST3 sticks to direct translation of the sentences. It is clear that the lesson in which she teaches reported speech reveals that ST3 picks up on the method or suggestions her supervisor teacher gives her. It can be inferred that ST3's disagreement with her supervisor does not necessarily mean that she ignores all of her suggestions and that circumstance do influence the extent to which code switching is used. ST3 expresses her position as follows:

T: My own idea for this lesson was to start off with examples and then ask them what reported speech was all about. However I had to stick with the supervisor's suggestion.

Table 14. ST3's SR response to Extract on Table 12 and 13

The extract above reveals the influence of the supervisor, which in this case overrides the teacher's own ideas. ST3 claims that she aimed to contextualise the grammar item by introducing it with examples, as ST1 and ST2 said before. Direct translation is used for clarification as suggested by the supervisor and ST3 complied with her supervisor's suggestions, even though she aimed to have a different approach to grammar teaching.

The teaching of grammar also brings to the fore an affective dimension in the understanding of the student teachers' approach to their work. They have concerns not only about their relationships with the supervisors but also about how they are affected by their own teaching. These concerns include confidence and emotional responses, which bear on their beliefs about teaching. In fact, this reveals a broader tension between the student teachers and their supervisors in terms of their own beliefs and what they expect from themselves for the future, what the supervisors expect of them and the actual expectations of the students they are teaching at the time. In ST1's case, it is clear that she has her views about what is suitable pedagogically and in these reflect aspects of her own identity as a teacher. In resisting the imposition of the identity of the supervisor teacher while nevertheless accommodating her supervisor's wishes, she creates a situation which causes tension within herself.

For instance ST1 is not happy about teaching grammar and thinks that focusing on grammar seriously reduces opportunities for activities that require spontaneous discussion / interaction:

<p>R: Why do you think students are a bit reluctant in responding to your questions?</p> <p>T: Errm, these students have not done anything like this in the lesson since the beginning of the term, most probably.</p> <p>R: Uhum.</p> <p>T: Yes, they might have done similar activities in reading when they were at ninth grade because they had had course books at the time. But here, I believe</p>	<p>T1: Ok you're right, thank you. Aaahh do you agree that reasons? OK, all the reasons</p> <p>S1: yes it is not different.</p> <p>T1: OK Melis [student's name]</p> <p>S5: (Nods)</p> <p>T1: Melis..Gamze [another student's name] No response. OK.</p>
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dwelling on grammar most of the time, reduces attendance to these kind of activities. Because in this class's case, they mostly do a grammar unit and grammar exercises following the lesson-stuff like filling in the blanks, or multiple choice exercises, sometimes even translation. That's why this was a bit strange for them- well maybe not strange but different.	
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Table 15. Extract from ST1's Second Teaching Session and Stimulated Recall Interview

ST1 implies that the students' being used to grammar teaching activities which focus on form affect contributions to other type of activities such as responding to a spontaneous question and discussing their opinions because they are used to the types of activity that require correct form. This is an interesting example of a teacher reflecting on the broader and more indirect impact of adopting a particular approach to teaching. In this context, code switching is part of a bigger picture and indicative of a general approach which ST1 finds unduly restrictive. ST1 criticises this obliquely and connects this to 'labelling', which she mentions she tries to avoid:

The lessons I used most [Turkish] are most probably grammar lessons. Because at grammar lessons, our tutor always told us not to use labelling. Because we are providing structures at these lessons, such as this is this and that, so on. Especially then one feels the need to use Turkish for some reason. It actually happens that way. Especially while addressing to subject, object and so on. These are all labelling.

ST1 implies that mentioning the form deductively while introducing a grammatical structure is labelling and she used switching into Turkish in order to avoid that. This is an example of ST1's practising her own way of teaching against her

supervisor's advice to use labelling. In the extract below, she mentions her dislike of teaching grammar along with her own learning experience:

R: OK from what you told me about your way of teaching, I would imagine you would cover as if as though first and after that you would give it a label like adverbial clauses of manner.

T: Yes, that would be the case. To be honest, I was not taught this way either.

R: Uhum.

T: I learned this as as if/ as though. I was surprised to see this with this label in grammar book as well.

....

T: There you see. These are horrible. It does not make sense even to me at all.

R: Yes, you say –miş gibi [as if] to be clearer. I wonder the reason you said this, if it makes sense to students.

T: Well, I don't know. It's a complete cloudy, blurry area for me to see.

R: I suppose the reason why you say it to make it clearer. It seems to me, and as you can see you turn around right after you say this to students and go on with the next thing on your plan.

T: Well I had a plan yes, and I am aware that I do and tell things to keep up with my plan or things I have in my mind.

R: Did you have any written guidelines during lesson?

T: No, I don't remember for this particular moment. But I have to say, I had the same feeling with this video and the one before. I am not happy teaching grammar at all. For some reason, when we say "covering a subject" first thing that comes into our minds is to teach grammar. However, I still don't like and want to teach grammar. I really don't. I think there is a reason coming from my own situation as well. Here I always felt the students would not process what I wanted teach. As I told you before, I did not know that this structure was called Adverbial Clauses of Manner. I started teaching with a strong prejudice and I was very unhappy at that moment. I did not want to do it.

Table 16. ST1's SR response to Extract on Table 6

In the extract above, ST1 points out the influence of the supervisor teacher and refers to her own learning experience again as 'I was not taught this way either'. Referring to line 27 on the classroom extract, she defines her actions as 'horrible' and at the end concludes that her prejudice and lack of enjoyment in teaching grammar was the reason why she did not enjoy teaching as if / as though. In other words, her

dislike does not stem from the subject matter alone but from her general dislike of teaching grammar - and implicitly her dislike of grammar itself. ST1 struggles with her own language learning experience, the supervisor teacher's suggestions, topic choice and her own idea of teaching grammar, all of these summed up in affective terms; such as feeling frustrated. A similar attitude can be observed for ST5's case in terms of the language choices of her own teachers:

Well, to be honest I became aware of the importance of the use of English in the classroom after coming to the university. At high school and before that my teachers used Turkish dominantly. It makes much better sense to me now.

The extract above suggests that the fact that ST5's English teachers' dominant Turkish usage is not appreciated. Her late realisation of the importance of the use of English makes ST5 reluctant to switch to Turkish and she does not want to repeat her own teachers' reliance on their first language because it all 'makes sense' to her now. A similar attitude can be observed for ST3's case whilst teaching reported speech:

<p><i>R: Why did you refer to direct translation here?</i> <i>T: To be clear, to make them understand better. They already look bored. I am also bored. Reported Speech does not make sense to me as well.</i> <i>T: I tried to avoid labelling as much as possible. I did not simply want to make translation but I had to. I felt very frustrated during this lesson, so bad.</i></p>

Table 17. ST3's SR response

As seen in table 17 above, ST3 expresses her dislike for teaching grammar as vehemently as the ST1. It can be inferred that she used Turkish to avoid frustration

for both her own sake and that of the students. ST2 also mentions the effect of frustration and of her own linguistic limitations on her code choice:

I used Turkish most while introducing something new. It could be a grammar item students never heard before. At that situation I could use Turkish to give instructions what to use where. But I could switch to Turkish only if I try it in English several times and see frustration of the students. And I sometimes miss or ignore words. Then the students ask me those words all of a sudden and I cannot come up with an explanation in English. That's because I don't know how to deal with it in English and I used Turkish when this happened.

In the extract below, ST2 introduces the 'simple future tense' (this is how they introduce referring to future events). She indeed starts introducing the content in English, observes the frustration of the students and switches to Turkish even without a prompt from the students:

01	T2: Today our topic is simple future tense. Do you know the meaning
02	of future?
03	STS: Yes.
04	T2: ((writes future on blackboard)) What is the meaning of future?
05	STS: Gelecek zaman [Future tense].
06	T2: And when we are talking about future tense, we use be going to,
07	and will. We use 'be going to' to talk about planned events. Do
08	you know the meaning of planned? Planlanmış olaylar için[for
09	planned actions]. When we talk about planned events and
10	intentions. Niyet. Planladığımız olaylar ve niyetimiz olan
11	olaylar için kullanıyoruz [Intention. We use this to express
12	actions we plan and have intention for] For example, you have
13	decided to go to-on a holiday- on a summer holiday. You are going
14	to buy something You are go shopping- you are going to go on
15	shopping.
16	((teacher writes 'I am going to go on shopping for the summer
17	holiday' on the blackboard))
18	Gelecekteki tatil için alışverişe çıkacağım [I'm going to go
19	shopping for my future holiday].

Table 18. Extract from ST2's First Teaching Session

Extract on table 18 indicates that ST2 introduces the new topic (the ‘simple future tense’, even though technically this does not exist in English) in English by directly asking the meaning of the word ‘future’ (Line 3). Upon receiving the right answer (line 4) she does not provide confirmation and directly starts explanations in English (lines 5-7). ST2 follows a deductive approach and asks the meaning of the English words such as ‘planned’ and ‘intentions’ (lines 7 and 9). She, however, provides Turkish translation of the function of the simple future tense (lines 9 and 10). Following these brief explanations, she writes an example sentence and translates that sentence without receiving any questions from the students (line 15). A similar case is observed at ST1’s lesson in which she teaches the ‘unreal situations’ in Adverbial Clauses of Manner. When ST1 introduces how to express ‘unreal situations’ using as if/ as though, she makes a transition to the section in Turkish right away:

086	T1: Şimdi unreal situationsa geçiyoruz [Now we move on with the
087	unreal situations] For unreal situations. Here, you know, the
088	situation is not real, ok, just comment on it.
089	T1: starts writing an example for the unreal situation
090	S3: ((turns to supervisor teacher who is present in classroom,
091	sitting at the back of the class)) Behave ne demek? [what does
092	act mean?]
093	T1: turns around
094	S4: act, act.
095	T1: OK, here’s sentence. I’m not their real daughter, you know
096	this, ok, but they behave, they mean their parents, behave as
097	if or though I were their real daughter. Here’s a some special
098	situation, verb. When we eee are talking about unreal
099	situations, ok, and when we use the verb to be after as if and
100	as though, erm, we use were for all subjects. He were, she
101	were, I were, you were, ok? Let’s try with another example. He
102	is not my boyfriend but he acts, turns around to the class
103	he acts - go on the sentence - he acts as if, Gamze? He acts
104	

Table 19. Extract from ST1’s Third Teaching Session

As seen in extract on table 19, ST1 makes a transition from real situations to unreal situations in Turkish (line 86). As she starts writing the example sentences on the

blackboard, she asks students to comment on it (line 88) expecting a follow-up based on the examples she did while teaching real situations. However, at the back of the class, one of the students asks the supervisor teacher not ST1 what the verb ‘behave’ means (line 91). From line 94 onwards, ST1 explains unreal situations in English. However, she once again changes this as follows:

103	T1:	he acts - go on the sentence - he acts as if,
104	Gamze?	He acts
105	S2:	Errm he,
106	T1:	as if
107	S2:	ermm was
108	T1:	or were
109	S2:	my boyfriend.
110	T1	Ok you’re right, well done. Bir de burda şöyle bir durum var.
111		Unreal situationslarda eeee as if as thoughdan sonraki bölümde
112		-- gerçek durumun fiilinin, gerçek durumumuzun fiili neydi? am
113		not yani present. Onun bir pastını alıyoruz. Anlaşıldı mı?
114		Şimdi diğer örneklerde daha iyi anlayacağız [There is a special
115		situation here. In unreal situations, in part of the sentence
116		following as if as though - what is the verb of our real
117		situation? Am not, which is present. We take its past form
118		here. Understood? You’ll get better in following examples]

Table 20. Extract from ST1’s Third Teaching Session

This extract is the follow up to the extract in Table 19. ST1 asks S2 to complete an example and even though she receives the correct answer (line 110) she feels the need to provide a further explanation in Turkish. She discussed this occasion as follows:

T: Here I felt the need to use Turkish again because it is very hard to clarify this. I don’t know how to address to using past participle form of a verb in English. That’s why I directly used Turkish. It’s a grammatical point and it would be very hard for me to explain this in English. Even if I did, I thought, they would not understand.

Table 21. ST1’s SR response to Extract on Table 20

ST1 directly uses Turkish here even without a prompt from the students. Unlike before, she observed the previous confusion (lines 105-109) and chose to use Turkish directly for clarification as she puts it. This implies that even if she has a plan before

teaching, she is able to observe students' needs well enough to respond flexibly and use Turkish to avoid confusion. In other words, her general position on the use of code switching is overridden by her assessment of student needs in situ, which suggests that code switching as a practical resource takes precedence over its status within the teacher's pedagogical belief system. This extract is followed by another similar occasion:

118	T1: Although, you know although, e rağmen [although], although I
119	slept at all last night, I feel tired now. Ok. Let's change
120	the sentence. I feel tired now as if, şimdi bu yani gerçek
121	manada yazılmış tensein, gerçek cümlede, bir pastını alıyoruz.
122	Past simple'in bir pastı ne? [now, what I mean is, we take the
123	past form of the actual, real tense in the other sentence.
124	What is the more past version of past simple?]
125	S4: Past perfect?
126	T1: Yes, you're right. Uyumuş, ama şu an yorgun hissediyormuş,
127	neden? Çünkü uyumamış gibi hissediyor ve bunu olumsuz
128	yapıyoruz [She slept but she feels tired now, why? Because she
129	feels as if she had not slept and we make this sentence in
130	negative form]I feel tired now as if, as if, I hadn't slept at
131	all last night. Is it clear? Gamze, Ayça, Zeynep? Uhum.

Table 22. Extract from ST1's Third Teaching Session

ST1 directly switches to Turkish again while explaining the change in tense in forming a correct as if / as though sentence (line 120). It should be noted that she does this without any prompts from the students. On line 124, ST1 receives a correct response from S4 and after confirming S4's response, she directly carries on her explanation entirely in Turkish (line 125 onwards). It should be noted that her first explanations started in English, which is a radical change within one lesson. In the following extract, ST1 asks students to focus on meaning of the sentences, which is something she has not done before:

148	T1: OK, err she looked shocked as if or as though, bir pastını
149	alıyoruz şunun, [we use the past perfect version of
150	this-[<i>underlining didn't</i>] and focus on the meaning ok? Focus
151	on the meaning. If you understand the meaning, you can form

152	the sentence. Ok. Another sentence. I have eaten a
153	S3: Were kullandıklarımızla were'ün bir pastını kullandıklarımız
154	arasında ne fark vardı? [What's the difference between the
155	examples in which we used 'were' and a past perfect]
156	T1: Sorry, which question?
157	S3: <i>points to the example on the board</i>
158	Özmeden sonra were kullanıyorduk ya - [you see we used 'were'
159	after the subject there]
160	T1: Uhum
161	S3: onla bu bir pastını kullandıklarımız arasında ne fark var?
162	[what's the difference between that one and the ones with
163	past perfect]
164	T1: <i>points to the board</i>
165	İkisi de aynı burada da past kullanıyorsun aslında. Present,
166	present simple'in bir pastı ne? [They are both the same.
167	Actually you use the past version of all tenses. What is the
168	ast version of present simple?]
169	S3: past.
170	T1: Past simple, past simple ok. You're talking about the past.
171	Past tense. While we're talking about past simple, onun bir
172	past formu da past perfect. [we use past tense's past,
173	which is past perfect]. Aynı şey, aynı işlemleri
174	yapıyoruz aslında. Ok? Sadece structure değişiyor bir
175	pastını alarak çünkü we're talking about unreal situations.
176	Ok? We know the real situation and we plant on it. [The
177	same thing, actually we are making use of the same procedure.
178	OK? Only the structure changes while we are using the past
179	form of every verb because we are talking about unreal
180	situations] I have eaten a sandwich but I feel hungry
181	now. Ok let's do it together. Ayça?

Table 23. Extract from ST1's Third Teaching Session

In extract on table 23, ST1 switches to Turkish directly (lines 148 and 149) and asks students to 'focus on meaning' of the sentence, which is something new (line 150). Upon her prompt, she receives a question from S3. Interestingly, in the data there is some indication that the more Turkish she uses, the more questions she receives from the students, probably because they are more comfortable using their L1. S3 asks a comprehension question on the tense changes while connecting two sentences which to construct an unreal situation sentence (lines 157 and 161). ST1 immediately responds to that in Turkish and asks follow-up questions to check comprehension (lines 164-165). On the evidence of this lesson, the extent to which Turkish is used at this point, compared with earlier in the lesson, suggests that once switches have been made to the L1 and proved to be effective in a particular lesson,

they are then more likely to occur later in the lesson, even when they are not prompted by particular circumstances such as evident student needs.

The extracts and the discussions above reveal several important points that make grammar teaching a deviant case in terms of the relationship between the code switching and grammar teaching and how these relate to the teachers beliefs and expectations of their own teaching. It is important to note that the relationship between code switching and grammar teaching refer to a broader understanding of the student teachers' own self and beliefs on teaching. The approach to grammar teaching of these student teachers can be summed up in the following points that can be observed through the events:

- Their relationship with the supervisor teacher (institutional aspect and tension between their beliefs and that of the supervisor's)
- Their own language learning experience (contextual factor)
- Their own feelings on teaching grammar and how they project these feelings towards the students they are teaching (affective factor)
- The local contingencies of the classroom

The analysis shows that all student teachers are heavily influenced by their supervisor teachers' suggestions. These suggestions sometimes cause a tension within their own projection of teaching grammar, which ideally in their view should not involve excessive Turkish use. However, it should also be noted that even though they do not agree with the supervisors, in some instances they think that the suggestions might be useful for them to achieve their teaching goals in lessons. The

resistance of the student teachers can also be related to their own language learning experience. They do not want to follow the 'old methods' their own teachers used. On some occasions, they mention that their own English competence is poor due to these methods, which affects their own confidence. Therefore, they want to accommodate their own beliefs on teaching, which involves minimum Turkish input while teaching grammar. However, in practice they observe that code switching while teaching grammar might be more practical; especially in terms of receiving comprehension check questions from the students. Another dimension to take into account is that of the affective factors that influence their attitudes towards teaching grammar. They all express their dislike for teaching grammar and during the stimulated recall interviews in particular, they mention how bored and frustrated they become due to teaching grammar. These student teachers believe that English should be the medium in language classrooms. Thus, the frustration they feel while teaching grammar not only stems from their dislike for teaching grammar itself, but also from the fact that they have to code switch more and stick to the supervisor's suggestions, which they regard as being 'old'. Despite all these, they also note that code switching is inevitable and can also be practical means of avoiding confusion and waste of time while also stimulating student responses.

One can conclude that code switching is more than exchanging between languages and grammar teaching is more than providing linguistic input for students. The relationship between code switching and grammar teaching might also be regarded as a process which includes indications of a bigger picture related to how a student teacher builds up his / her own self and beliefs on teaching. This is the reason why

grammar teaching is presented as a separate section in data analysis chapter. In the case of these student teachers, it includes internal and external factors. The external factors include the subject matter, their relationships with the supervisors and the contingencies in the classroom they meet. The internal ones include their own language learning experience, their own feelings about teaching grammar and how they respond to their supervisor's suggestions in light of these beliefs. These teachers do not want to follow the 'old methods' that their own teachers followed, which includes extensive use of Turkish and this attitude is linked to their concerns about their own language competency. However, when they are in a situation where they are asked to use Turkish while teaching grammar, a tension occurs. This tension is ignored either by complying with the supervisor's suggestions (which do not always prove to be wrong) or responding to the relevant student needs that occur in the lessons. It is interesting to observe that they express their dislike for teaching something considerably more where they feel the need to use Turkish when teaching other skills or content.

Taking up some of the themes touched on this section, the following sections include more detailed analyses of the role of code switching on teachers' selves, affective factors and the supervisor's influence.

4.4.2. Student Teachers' Selves

In this section of the data analysis, I discuss the student teachers' projection of their own 'self' as a teacher with reference to code switching. Throughout the analysis,

the student teachers have mentioned or experienced occasions of being themselves as teachers and their own ways of teaching. Although I have discussed these in other sections of the data analysis, the discussions were more related to particular factors such as the subject matter (grammar), affective factors (internal and external) and the supervisor influence. In this section, I discuss intrinsic ideas of the student teachers which shed a light on their projection of the teacher they would like to become. At this point, the data reveal that code switching has a significant role in the picture. It is more than the preference to use a language in a particular situation, but a result of a conscious or unconscious thought process on particular occasions which gives us hints about the existence of how the student teachers position themselves as teachers. For this reason, the classroom is where the student teachers display their own self most clearly. For example, the first thing ST4 says when he starts his teaching session is related to the language choice in the classroom:

001	T: First of all, I want to tell you that no Turkish is allowed.
002	S1: Anlamadım [I don't get it]
003	((students burst into laughter))
004	S2: Türkçe konuşmak yasak diyor. [He says Turkish is forbidden]
005	S3: Ee nasıl anlaşacağız? [So how are we going to communicate then?]
006	T: Ufuk, please clean the black board. OK. Where are we?
007	S4: Teacher can I ask you a question?
008	T: OK.
009	S4: Teacher you can write very good.
010	STS: Beautiful.
011	T: But not this time.
012	S5: Hocam kendisinde algılama eksikliği var [Sir, she is not able
013	to perceive information well enough]
014	S4: No, I am the best.
015	T: OK, listen please. Open the page 77 please.
016	S6: Kitabımı bulamıyorum [I can't seem to find my book]
017	S7: Hocam arkadaşımın yanına geçebilir miyim? [Sir, may I sit next
018	to my friend?]
019	T: He says use the prompts to find out-
020	S8: Hangi sayfa? [which page?]
021	T: 77.
022	S7: ((approaches to the teacher)) Teacher, arkadaşımın yanına
023	geçebilir miyim? [Sir, may I move next to my friend?]
024	T: Please, please. In English please.
025	S7: ((shows the desk))

026	T: Where, where?
027	S8: Teacher, he haven't got any book.
028	T: OK sit please, ok.

Table 24. Extract from ST4's First Teaching Session

The extract in table 24 shows the first interaction ST4 has with the students he is teaching. He clearly states that he will not tolerate Turkish in his lessons. The first response he receives is, however, in Turkish. The immediate reaction coming from the student is that he does not 'get it'. The next prompt comes from another student, again in Turkish. It is the direct translation of what ST4 says and the conversation between the students continue in Turkish. There are two interesting points here. Firstly, ST4 does not respond to these interactions at all; neither in English nor in Turkish. Secondly, student 3 asks a very relevant question, which is 'how are we going to communicate then?' (line 5). This question remains without a response from ST4. ST4 does not address these issues immediately when they occur; instead he asks another question related to the subject matter he is going to teach. ['Can you clean the blackboard', line 6]. It can be regarded as a consistent attitude now that he has stated that he does not want to use Turkish in the classroom at all. Another student (S4) asks a question next, now in English (line 7). This time ST4 responds to the prompt. It is clear that ST4 ignores a comment or a question coming from the students when it is in Turkish. Following ST4's response, another student (S5) makes a derogatory comment on a peer related to the conversation they are having. ST4 does not respond this either, because it is in Turkish. Instead ST4 tries to make a transition to the subject matter that he is going to teach in course book. The students continue asking managerial questions (lines 16 and 17) in Turkish, still not receiving any response from ST4. Instead of answering ST4 reads out an instruction

from the course book. However, he is interrupted with another question in Turkish, this time about the subject matter. This time ST4 responds this. At this point something interesting occurs: a student approaches ST4 in order to receive a response to his previous request to sit next to his friend, to which ST4 did not respond earlier. As much as ST4 insists on ignoring questions or requests in Turkish, the students behave the same in terms of asking questions in Turkish (Line 22). ST4 finally feels the need to repeat his attitude to encourage students to use English by clearly saying 'please in English' (line 24). The student's resistance to using English continues because instead of expressing his request in English, he simply points to the place he wants to sit. Following this event, another student (S8) says in English that they do not have a book. ST4 responds to this by simply saying 'OK' and asks the students to sit down, which is an indication that the students are not even sitting at their desks, let alone paying attention to what ST4 is trying to draw their attention to.

ST4 discusses this event in stimulated recall interview as follows:

R: The first thing you say is "No Turkish in the class".

T: Yes, that's a bit funny. I think I tried to show my attitude about using English in the classroom.

ST4 reacts to this event as 'funny' and clearly states that his aim to put it that way is to show his attitude to the students, though as indicated below, his position is not

entirely categorical. For his case, this is the way to make his attitude clear. A similar approach is observed in ST1's case as follows:

Yes Turkish should be used but the first choice should always be English and the persistence of speaking English should never be dropped. ...Whenever they spoke Turkish, I always responded and warned them in English to prompt them to speak English to me. And from that moment on, they stopped using Turkish. They started using very little Turkish because that's the image they get from the teacher – thinking teacher will ask me to respond in English.

As seen in the extract, ST1 also thinks that persistence to use English should always be a priority. She further discusses how her attitude affects her students' behaviour in time. She claims that her persistence in using English worked for her case and her students started responding her in English, unlike ST4. One of the important points for these two teachers (ST1 and ST4) is what they mean by attitude. ST1 implies the underlying reason why she continues the insistence of using English in the classroom when she mentions an 'image' of a teacher who uses English. This teacher image is a reflection of the ideal teacher she wants to become: a teacher who does not respond the students' Turkish utterances which will allow her to establish a teacher 'self' in students' minds with the expectation of making students use English more. At times this image goes beyond linguistic interaction for S4's case:

R: What about explaining meaning of a word?

T: I would keep doing it in English even if they respond me in Turkish. I would use facial expressions or body language as well.

As seen in the extract above, ST4 expresses his insistence on not using use Turkish. He clearly states that he would rather make use of body language and facial expressions instead of responding to students in Turkish. This attitude is in line with the image of the teacher he wants to establish in his students' eyes. At the same time, he says that Turkish might be used in lessons. He elaborates on this issue as follows:

R: What's your opinion on that? Should first language be used in the classroom?

T: Of course. A lesson without mother tongue is impossible. Our supervisor was right to use Turkish to restore discipline in the classroom. It does not necessarily have to be used for discipline purposes of course but it should be minimized. Last resort.

The extract above summarizes ST4's attitude towards Turkish use in the classroom. He thinks that it is impossible to omit Turkish completely and it should be used as a 'last resort' in the classroom. As mentioned before, he resorts to body language and facial expressions in order not to use Turkish, which is consistent with the 'image' he wants to establish. ST3 and ST1, however, mention language modification in order to establish an English-user teacher image. ST1, for instance, rationalises this idea as a suggestion of her tutor:

I mean novice teachers are not very good at paraphrasing. With time, a teacher can learn how to describe something according to the level of students by simplifying the language. That was what our tutor said basically.

As seen above, ST1 thinks that a teacher ideally should be able to paraphrase what she is saying in the classroom. According to her, she cannot achieve this because she is not experienced enough to do so. It can be inferred that she believes she will have to refer to Turkish less when she becomes more experienced. She further discusses what she does in order to achieve that as follows:

As for vocabulary, it was something like – I always had English equivalents and meaning to make it easier to explain to student.

This is how ST1 thinks that she can cope with the need for simplifying the language. When she encounters a difficult word to explain, the first thing she does is not switching to Turkish right away but offering perhaps more familiar English equivalents to make herself clearer. This, of course, brings another dimension to the issue, which is the teacher's preparation for the lesson. One of the motivations for ST1 while preparing for the lesson is to detect words that are likely to be problematic for the students to understand. Secondly, she tries to find equivalents for those words in English to change the sense of the understanding her students. This is again related to the kind of the teacher she would like to become. This is a clear indication that ST1 is looking ahead at the way she might be able to develop as a teacher. She recognises the challenges she faces as the case with paraphrasing but at the same time, she projects an aspect of the teacher she would like to become. Thus her view of identity is one of that sees professional development as a fundamental part of it. A similar attitude is observed for ST3's case:

Well, I think English can be used this way. You modify your language according to their level. I think we can learn how to reach out to students by using less and easier

words. When I try to modify my sentences, you know, simplify them in a way that they can understand, I do not need Turkish. This worked for both classes I taught. This does not work for grammar. At least you have to translate the first example you write on the board.

As seen in the extract, ST3 also believes that language modification is doable except when grammar is being taught. In the grammar teaching section of the data analysis I have illustrated how the student teachers see grammar as a special case in which a teacher has to switch to Turkish. ST3 talks from experience, in that; she does not feel the need to switch to Turkish when she simplifies her language by using 'easier' words. This is ST3's self-evaluation of where and to what extent she should switch to Turkish. The important thing is to 'reach out' to the students as she puts it and she feels confident that she can achieve that. This approach can be regarded as an aspect of her professional identity: she is someone willing to make the effort to approach students on their own terms rather than standing back and requiring them to conform to her own expectations. The need for confidence to be able to use English as an ideal teacher in the classroom brings concerns about the teachers' own language competencies. As much as the student teachers claim that avoiding Turkish in the classroom is impossible, they also refer to how their own English competencies expose their limitations as teachers. They see this as a challenge that they have to overcome. For instance, ST4 feels upset and inadequate when he cannot achieve that:

The bottom line is that I think I should be able to handle particular situations in English as a teacher. When I can't do it, I feel inadequate. That's why I become upset. It's about my competence, not the students.

In the extract above, ST4 summarizes the kind of the teacher he would like to become. His ideal image of himself is a teacher who does not have to refer Turkish in order to deal with problematic situations in the classroom. He does not mention any pedagogical skills while discussing this; he rather focuses on his own linguistic competency. He also puts the pressure on himself completely in terms of covering a lesson totally in English. Therefore he acknowledges that if a problem occurs in the classroom, it is not his students' fault but his because he thinks that he is inadequate at reaching out to his students. It seems here that code switching serves as an indication of the perceived inadequacy which is an integral part of the student teacher's self. Like ST3, this teacher accepts the responsibility for potential communication problems in the classroom and sees this as a matter of teacher responsibility rather than that of the students. In a sense, both are constructing themselves as caring teachers.

Akin to the statements by ST3 and ST4, the extract below displays an example on how ST1 encourages English use in the classroom:

<p>T: Here I supported peer interaction; I wanted them to help each other.</p> <p>R: Do you think it is because the student knew that you would not answer her in Turkish?</p> <p>T: Yes, exactly. At least she asked the meaning of lift in English.</p>	<p style="text-align: right;"><i>S1 tries to explain to S4</i></p> <p>S1: Mimikleri, hareketleri işte body language. [their mimics, antics, see, body language]</p> <p>T: In English please. You can say, ok. Explain to your friend.</p> <p>S1: She is asking to erm as your parents have same body language.</p> <p>S4: Sometimes.</p> <p>T: Sometimes, can you tell me the examples?</p> <p>S4: Err</p> <p>T: For example Melis showed us both their ma and pa er do this ((shows it)) uh yes.</p> <p>S4: When I was in my room, erm, when I, er ((turns to her friend)) Nasıl diyeceğim onu? [How am I going to say it?]</p> <p>S1: Ne diyeceksin? [What are you going to say?] ((they both chuckle))</p> <p>T: Come on, help your friend. Just try you can show the mimics or body language.</p> <p>S4: What's the meaning of kaldırmak? [raise] ((raises her hand))</p> <p>T: Lift.</p> <p>S4: My mother lift her hand.</p> <p>T5: Uhum.</p> <p>S4: When she was angry.</p> <p>T5: And your father lift?</p> <p>S4: Yes. Yes.</p>
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Table 25. Extract from ST1's Teaching Session 5

In this extract, student 1 is asked to explain what body language means to her friend. Even though S1 understands what it means, she switches to Turkish while explaining it to her friend, at which point ST1 directly intervenes. She clearly asks the student to use English. In the stimulated recall interview she says that her aim is to encourage peer interaction and yet she expresses her preference with respect to the language she wants to be used. This, in fact, corresponds with the image she would like to establish: a teacher who will prefer English as the first choice. Following S1's explanation in English, S4 responds. However, ST1 asks a follow-up question that requires S4 to elaborate. Upon the hesitation of S4, ST1 continues giving her additional examples to help comprehension. This is once again an

example of ST1's persistence in using English. At this point S4 becomes confused and turns S1 for help in Turkish. It is important to note that S4 does not ask for a response from ST1 because she knows that ST1 will not respond her. ST1 observes the exchanges in Turkish; however, this time she does not ask S4 to talk in English. Instead, she tries to encourage S4 by giving examples on how she can communicate her thoughts even without talking, such as by using mimicry and body language. Only after that does S4 ask the meaning of a word, in English. ST1 regards this as an accomplishment as seen in stimulated recall. This shows how important it is for ST1 to be able to trigger output in English.

These comments by the teachers suggest they are involved in a process of constant self-evaluation and reflection. The data show that the content of the self-reflection goes beyond merely concerns about code switching but rather extends to more fundamental aspects of the teachers' identities. ST2, for instance, sees herself as someone who is 'easy-going' then explains what the implications of this are for her approach:

I am an easy-going teacher. I did not terrorize the students; I tried to encourage them to talk as much as possible. Maybe because of their own teacher's influence, they were very reluctant to take part in the lesson actively. I think I did my best. Thank you so much for this opportunity by the way. It gave me the chance to have self-reflection on myself, which is not a very integral part of this course.

ST2 thinks that she should encourage her students to talk, linking this directly to the relationship she has with her students and indirectly to her own professional

identity. She mentions the negative influence of the supervisor on her efforts to encourage the students to talk (as mentioned in previous sections, ST2's supervisor prefers Turkish and encourages the student teachers to stick to Turkish, with which ST2 does not agree). According to her, being able to achieve something that her supervisor cannot do with her own students is very important. She observes her supervisor and recognizes the flaws and tries to avoid those. She also mentions the importance of being given an opportunity to think about the process and analyse her own teaching experience.

In this section of the data analysis chapter, I discussed how the student teachers' ideas about the type of the teacher they would like to become affects their attitude with reference to code switching. One of the clearest results emerging from the data is the fact that a preference for using English as the medium of the classroom is not merely about the language choice - there is more to it than just linguistic concern. According to the student teachers, a competent teacher should be able to use English as the medium even though they argue that it is inevitable that they will need to switch to Turkish occasionally. The external factors affecting this attitude have been discussed earlier and yet there is a strong indication that the way student teachers project this attitude to their teaching is closely related to how they want to see themselves as teachers. This can be summed up in a list of statements that all of the teachers in the study appear to subscribe to:

- If I do not respond to the students' questions or comments when in Turkish, they will force themselves to use English more. I am a teacher who does not switch to Turkish easily.

This is the kind of teacher the student teachers would like to become. They want to see themselves as the target language provider in a way and think that maximum exposure is the best for the students. Therefore, they choose to ignore utterances from the students when they are in Turkish. They believe it is going to be difficult for the students at first but after a while they will learn to try to speak in English and this will be an achievement for the student teachers in terms of projecting a teacher who will not easily switch to Turkish in the students' eyes.

- As an English teacher, I should be competent enough to provide necessary further explanations, examples and phrases when need be. Otherwise I will seem incompetent to the students.

Practically, this attitude is related to the previous one - the student teachers would like to establish an identity as a teacher self who does not switch to Turkish unless it is the last resort. In order to be able to do that, they prepare carefully for the lesson; for instance, by coming up with easier or more familiar equivalents of the words or by using body language. The student teachers state that if these efforts fail, code switching should occur, though this is not desirable. According to the student teachers, when a teacher switches to Turkish very often, this means that that teacher is not competent. Thus, it can be inferred that a teacher should always be ready to ask questions and provide further explanations in English. In this way, they aim to encourage their students to try to speak English.

- An English teacher should always be able to modify his/her language according to the level of their students. Otherwise insisting on English is pointless.

Language modification is an important issue for the student teachers. They would like to keep their 'competent teacher' image by modifying their language so that they do not switch to Turkish. By doing that, they reinforce their dominantly English speaking competent teacher image, adjusting their language according to their students' level of competency.

- Self-reflection is very important to me.

The student teachers have one term of teaching experience during their senior year. Their supervisors and the tutor evaluate them on a weekly basis. However, the student teachers do not have the opportunity to discuss their experiences within the framework of the course contents. This means that discovering things about themselves as teachers is important. ST2's supervisor, for example, favoured Turkish in the classroom but ST2 thought the opposite. Therefore, she felt frustrated and this eventually affected her language choice in the classroom. Only through reflection process could she discover these about herself and she appreciates this.

In the next section I look into affective factors in relation to code switching.

4.4.3 Affective Factors

In this section I explore the relationship between the affective dimension expressed by the student teachers and how this relates to code switching. As will become clear, the data strongly suggest that the student teachers' feelings influence their approaches in the lessons. These feelings emerge from the student teachers' own observations of the students they are teaching while they are teaching and their own language competencies. For instance ST4 mentions the importance of the 'atmosphere' he should create in the classroom:

But I think they get used to it [the extensive usage of English] after a while. I think the important thing is to provide a comfortable atmosphere.

The extract reveals that ST4 cares about the feelings of the students. Doing that, he aims to create a comfortable atmosphere. Another observation is expressed by ST2 during the stimulated recall interview as follows:

I figured that my lessons are so dull. I could make it more fun, I mean, even I got bored watching these videos. I can't imagine how those poor students felt.

It can be argued that ST2 also considers the factor of enjoyment that has to be involved in her lesson. She describes her own lessons as 'dull' and makes a deduction about how the students might have felt as well. She constructs empathy with her students and criticizes herself by expressing her own limitations. It is

interesting to note that she puts herself in her students' shoes in terms of their feelings instead of only relating this reflection to the subject matter she was teaching at the time. The extract below illustrates an example of her changing approach to the choice of language due to ST2's observation of students' reactions:

<p>T: I think it's because I conditioned myself to use Turkish and then didn't find it logical to ask meanings over again. Along the way I think I gave up. R: I wonder why you gave up. T: Maybe because of time constraints or maybe I felt like they were following my point at the time. R: Well, can you figure out if they got your point? T: I think it's the looks. Sometimes they look very confused, surprised. Sometimes they don't react, nod...etc. At those occasions, I feel like they are not following me. Of course this does not mean I am always fully aware of this situation.</p>	<p>T: And second usage of will. We use will when we talk about spontaneously. Anlık [Spontaneouslyly] ... T: Anlık bir cümle, önceden düşünmediniz. Anında bir olay oldu, onun için söylüyorsunuz. [A spontaneous sentence, you did not think through before. Something happens all of a sudden and at that point you use will.] For example the phone is ringing. And you are the nearest person to it. And you say 'OK, I'll answer it'.</p>
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Table 26. Extract and SR from ST2's First Teaching Session

As seen in Table 26, ST2 starts introducing the usage of will to refer to future actions in English and switches into Turkish while explaining the usage of it in more detail without a prompt from the students. Upon being asked why she switched to Turkish at that point in the stimulated recall interview, she points out the importance of the reactions of the students in her class along with the possibility of time constraints. It is important for ST2 to make herself clear to the students and if she suspects that students look 'surprised' or 'confused' she feels uncomfortable. She notes the importance of receiving a reaction from the students and yet adds that

her awareness is not always enough to make clear judgements on this all the time.

ST3 has a similar view on observing her students while teaching reported speech:

It's like I understand that they don't get it when I try to elaborate on reported speech in English. The process works the other way around with my perception of their understanding when I use English for instructions, for example. I am also aware that no matter what I do, there will be couple of students who will not have an idea what I'm talking about.

The extract above reveals that ST3 monitors her students and in the light of her observations, she can make deductions about her students' different reactions in different lessons. For instance, she observes that her students have comprehension problems when she teaches a grammar subject (reported speech) in English and yet, when it comes to giving instructions in English, her perception is that her students do not have such a problem. Her last statements reveal that she has the realisation of her own limits as a teacher regardless of the language she uses; there is an implication of disappointment in knowing that she will not be able to reach out to all of her students.

The other factor that emerges from the data is the effect of the student teachers' own English competencies. The student teachers discuss this factor in terms of the importance of their responsibility as a teacher to expose their students to English as much as possible and being simply frustrated because of their own perception of their lack of English competency. In other words, they feel inadequate as teachers

when they do not feel that they provide enough exposure in English for their students. This feeling is occasionally caused by their lack of adequate competence in English and their own language learning experiences. These feelings inevitably affect their language choice in the lessons. ST4, for instance, implies that he tries to avoid Turkish to expose his students to English as much as possible by referring English and American kids acquiring their native language:

I have been dealing with English for 13 years myself and I still don't speak very fluently. But when you take a four year old English or American kid, they can speak more fluently than I can. Why? Due to need. As we can speak our mother tongue, it is easy for us to literally jump into Turkish. That kid, on the other hand, does not have another choice. That's why Turkish should be used minimum.

It can be argued that ST4 makes a connection between being fluent in English and the effect of using Turkish in class, albeit indirectly. His own language learning experience comes into play while he discusses switching to Turkish. He implies that if he (or any other language learner) could get enough exposure in English, he could speak more fluently. This connection with his own learning process makes ST4 think that the more his students are exposed to English, the better their English competency will become. It is also important to note that he sees switching to Turkish as 'easy'. This comment implies that using English extensively is difficult and in his comment he says 'it is easy for us to literally jump into Turkish' which suggests that he is considering himself in the same situation with his students in terms of the need to switch to Turkish. He further relates this to language

acquisition process of English native speakers. His point is that native English speakers need to use English because it is in their everyday world whereas his students have the opportunity to use English only in the lessons. That's why he believes that he should provide maximum English input so that his students can benefit from the lessons. It can be inferred that he feels responsible for his students' language competence; to be more specific; their oral fluency. Upon being asked about the biggest challenge he had to overcome during the practicum, he again refers to his doubts about his capability to adapt his English according to his students' level:

The idea that 'I cannot speak English in the classroom entirely because the students will not understand me'. Of course if I speak English like the way I speak Turkish right now, I mean the speed, choice of words and etc, most of the students would not understand me. But if you choose the right words and speed, it should be ok. I had problems myself in making myself clear to the students and I believe my level of competency in English is good. Well, I think I could overcome this problem. I observe that most of my friends had the same problem.

The extract above reveals the doubts ST4 had before the practicum in terms of his language use. He firmly believes that he is a competent English speaker 'now' (after four years of ELT training); however, he is still worried about whether he will be able to modify his language to be understood by his students on the grounds of 'clarity'. This is an indication that ST4 is concerned about the effectiveness of the delivery his teaching more than his own English competency, which is also an

important professional asset for him. ST5 has a similar attitude to this as ST4 as follows:

Well, sometimes some of the students come up and say that they can not fully understand everything I say. I can relate to this but there is also the possibility for them to get used to this. If I use Turkish, they will not try to understand me at all. This was a bit problematic. I believe sometimes students have misconceptions about understanding the instructions and other things I say in English. Sometimes they think they don't have an idea but indeed they do. It's a matter of process. They have to give themselves time to get used to it you know.

As seen in the extract above, ST5 strongly believes that it is only a matter of time and process for the students to understand her fully even if they think they do not. She regards this as 'problematic' but insists that Turkish usage might prevent students from trying to understand English. It is interesting that she says she can 'relate to' the fact that her students tell her that they cannot understand her. At some point, her views on exposure to English coincided with the different suggestions by the supervisor and the tutor which highlighted a contradiction and thus provoked a reaction. ST1 points out this as follows:

He [the tutor] said these students are private school students, they must have done plenty and exposed to language well enough. Make them read the text fast and ask questions right after. Make them speak a lot and allow them to make deductions with comprehension questions. But our supervisor told us to read the text out loud first, and

then make a student read out loud, and then let students read again silently. It did not sound enjoyable to me. I think reading again and again is boring.

It can be concluded from the extract above that the affective dimension affecting student teachers' judgements might also be brought to bear on the suggestions of the supervisor and the tutor. In this case, ST1 considers the different positions taken up by the tutor and the supervisor. It is important to note that ST1 evaluates the tutor's and the supervisor's suggestions in terms of their being 'enjoyable' rather than in terms of educational theory or other pedagogical considerations. She thinks of how the students and she might be affected by the proposed approaches and decides to follow the suggestion that she believes to be more enjoyable.

In addition to the discussion of the teachers' responsibility to expose the students to English, the student teachers also mention how they are affected by their perceived lack of English competency. For instance ST3 discusses the importance of teaching experience course in terms of using English and Turkish in the classroom as follows:

The best thing about it was the opportunity it gave us to speak English. I mean normally we don't think about it or feel to plan a routine around it. Whereas, this was also a difficulty because performing something you don't do normally in a classroom can be challenging. For instance, sometimes even the simplest instructions like 'repeat after me' was hard to utter in the event of a speech in the classroom. The vocabulary has some cultural challenges as well. Sometimes even Turkish is not enough!

As seen in the extract, ST3 regards the course as a whole experience of performing in a way she has not done before regardless of the language she uses during the lesson. She points out the importance of practising English in a class herself as a teacher and how difficult it can be to give the simplest instructions or explanations. This is an interesting point because it relates to linguistic competence rather than just English competence. ST3 suggests that her linguistic frustration affects her performance and regards this as a limitation. However, on a higher note, she considers having an opportunity to teach in front of a class is the best thing about the whole procedure. She also addresses 'simple' points which in fact could be quite challenging while teaching such as giving instructions. Her comments suggest that teachers not only feel frustration because of the actual content of a lesson. Some minor points such as giving simple instructions – as she puts it - can be challenging as well because all actions in the lessons require being comfortable. ST2 has similar concerns as to those of ST1:

As for my case, there were some occasions that I could not explain things. The feeling not being understood. I mean if you can not explain a particular thing. It is better to translate sayings or words.

The extract reveals that the ST2 is concerned about being understood by the students. She points out that she struggles to explain things in English and concludes that switching to Turkish on these occasions is better. In extract below the ST2's discusses her language choice during an activity:

R: Here I thought you would make them play a game such as Chinese Whispers but it is an act-out activity.
T: Could be yes.
R: I wonder if the instructions you give during this activity are in Turkish or English.
T: Turkish, Turkish definitely. Otherwise it could be a nightmare. It already was anyway. I would rather not have to do it in Turkish, but I had to. I was quite frustrated during this activity. I told them to sing a song, and they told me 'What are we going to sing?'

Table 27. SR from ST2's Third Teaching Session

In the extract above, ST2 reveals that she had to switch to Turkish while giving instructions to students to act out an activity, for which she would not rather switch. It is important to note that even if she considers it would be a nightmare to use English, she is still not happy not to be able to explain the activity to the students in English; in fact, she is frustrated. Another important point is that ST2 is not comfortable with using Turkish even while giving instructions. This is an example of procedural talk; talk designed to set up activities but outside the activity itself. During this talk, code switching occurs out of necessity, which causes ST2 to feel frustrated. In fact, ST2 directly relates code switching to her poor English competency:

I think my English competence was not good enough at some occasions. I mean I used direct translation when my English was not good enough. Also while trying to paraphrase a word to explain to the students, I mean sometimes even if I tried to do that couple of times and saw the students did not understand, I had to switch to Turkish.

As revealed in extract above, ST2 suggests that the reason for her direct translation is her incompetence to paraphrase a word in English to provide explanations for her students. It can be inferred that ST2 strongly believes that there is a direct correlation between poor English skills and switching to Turkish, which is not a desirable position to be in. ST1 faces a similar situation explaining a point and becomes frustrated:

<p>R: Here you start answering your own question.</p> <p>T: Yes I do, this is very funny.</p> <p>R: Later you, switch again.</p> <p>T: I explained over and over and over again. I think this is second or third time I do this. Then I believe they could not understand my point.</p> <p>R: Do you think you have some kind of frustration here?</p> <p>T: Absolutely. My body language also shows this. I look like enough is enough; I'm going to say it in Turkish. I even put my hand on my waist, which is an indication of being upset and frustrated. It also shows from my tone of voice.</p>	<p>T1: but we answer these questions according to the passage. OK? You don't have to comment on it.</p> <p>S1: Pfff</p> <p>T1: Just look at the passage and answer it. People sometimes hide bad news because they don't want to eeerrmm ok bad news, bad news himm yes ee the line 16, 17, the line 17, look at the 17th, line 17. Did you all find? Lying to hide bad news: There are, there are times we don't want to tell some-someone bad news. For example, you've just had a very bad day at work but you don't want to talk about it. OK? You don't want to talk about it. Onun hakkında konuşmak istemediğiniz için belli bir süre vermiyorsunuz, anladınız mı? [As you don't want to talk about it, you don't give time to it, do you understand?] Is there a problem? Ha ha the second question. Which of the following is not mentioned in the text? Gamze?</p>
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Table 28. Extract and SR from ST1's First Teaching Session

In the extract above, ST1 wants the students to find the related line referring the question she asks however she starts answering the question herself. She points out that she explained the line reference issue over and over again in English but the students still could not understand what she was expecting of them. As she has

difficulty in explaining in English, she feels frustrated and switches to Turkish as a last resort. In this case code switching occurs necessarily but not voluntarily as it is the case for ST2. The physical reluctance to code switch should also be pointed out. The extract from the classroom reveals that upon being asked to answer a question which is related to the reading passage, the student's answer is simply 'pfff' which could be quite frustrating for a novice teacher. Although ST1 receives a very obvious response from the student upon asking the question in English, she carries on explaining and giving the answer herself in English. Only when she sees that English is still not working does she switch to Turkish. The reason why she becomes very frustrated can be seen more clearly in her discussion in the stimulated recall interview. She points out that having explained the reference line activity 'over and over again' it is quite frustrating to receive a negative physical response from a student. ST1 also mentions her body language in struggling to respond to the students and how upset she gets as she cannot make her point clear in English. She recognizes the change on her tone of voice and body language caused by this frustration. A similar situation is observed in the extract below:

T: God, here I'm really upset. I ask if they understood or not and do I need to explain other options in Turkish.	T1: Yes, you're right C. People lie when they don't want to hear bad news. Errm diğer seçenekleri bulmamıza gerek var mı? Hepiniz anladınız mı? [Do we need to find the other options as well? Have you all understood?] Ok the third question. Tolga?
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Table 29. Extract and SR from ST1's First Teaching Session

The extract above reveals that ST1 is upset because she has to use Turkish to check comprehension. It is important to note that she continues using English for the

content of the subject matter but prefers to ask comprehension check question in Turkish. Her previous experience with the line reference issue and not being able to explain further in English might make her to switch into Turkish immediately in this case, about which she is not happy at all. Following the negative physical response she received in extract 28, she receives a correct answer but she still cannot be sure if the students understood what she was expecting of them. That is why she asks if the students have further questions or not in English, involuntarily again. In the stimulated recall extract she once again reveals how upset this is making her. It is clear that ST1 is deliberately displaying her own affective orientation non-verbally and apparently she is not happy about it.

The extracts and the discussions above indicate how affective factors influence the student teachers and their code choice in the lessons. All student teachers reveal or discuss the ways they are affected by these and the following points sum up their attitudes:

- The student teachers constantly monitor the students not only in terms of the subject matter they are teaching but they also monitor how they feel, respond and react in particular situations. These observations are closely related to their code choice in lessons. Sometimes they perform involuntary code switching as a result of these observations to make themselves clearer, but at the expense of feeling frustration. However, the point is they are willing to be flexible and open to the verbal and/or non-verbal signals they are receiving from the students.

- They do not want their lessons to be boring. They do not want to get bored, either. Their affective well-being is also important for them. They are aware that affective interaction is not one-sided.
- They feel responsible as teachers to use English as much as possible to provide exposure. This responsibility resonates with their language learning experiences and that is why they become upset if they have to use Turkish in the classroom. If they feel that they are following the same practices, they are upset and occasionally display this discontentment non-verbally as well.
- They all think that their lack of English competency is one of the reasons why they cannot make further explanations or clarifications to the students. They claim that they have to switch to Turkish to make themselves clear in spite of their wishes and this causes them frustration. Although they occasionally claim that it is inevitable and necessary to switch to Turkish in the lessons, they become upset when they have to do that and it affects their mood and their beliefs about themselves in terms of being a competent teacher.
- One of the teachers pointed out a more general reason for her frustration while teaching, which is linguistic competence rather than just competence in English. She implies that sometimes even Turkish is not enough to discuss particular skills while teaching; such as vocabulary. She points out how even being in front of a group of students puts a strain on her, let alone having to teach English to them. She also mentions cultural differences which might make things a bit harder for her.

- The data also suggests that the different approaches proposed by the supervisors and the tutor of the student teachers are a source of potential frustration. As for the case in the data, the tutor and the supervisor have different opinions on teaching reading. The student teachers, however, want to establish their own way of teaching. The student teachers are trying to find a middle ground between the two and their own feelings. In this process, they feel stressed and sometimes have to take decisions they are not always happy with while teaching.

The next section includes more detailed analysis of the supervisors' influence on student teachers and its relation to code switching.

4.4.4. Supervisor Influence

In this section I discuss the influence of the supervisors on the student teachers in relation to their language choice. All student teachers discuss how their supervisors and the tutor at the university affect their approach to the lessons with a focus on code switching. I discuss the student teachers' relationships with their supervisors because it is one of the most significant factors affecting the framework of the lessons covered by the student teachers. Because the supervisors are the main mentors for these teachers, they have a professional bond in addition to any relationships developed through personal interactions. The professional bond involves the supervisors' evaluations of the student teachers' performances at the end of the term. The tutor at the university is also involved in this process but the supervisors' input is more significant because they observe the student teachers'

teaching every week. As a result, the student teachers need to be aware of the supervisors' expectations of them in order to achieve higher scores in the supervisor's evaluations. In addition to this, both parties are sharing an experience throughout the two terms. The first term (autumn term) of this experience involves observation of the supervisor teacher conducted by the student teachers. The student teachers observe and discuss their supervisors' teaching sessions with their tutor at the university. This process provides student teachers with a background to the students and the supervisor's teaching. The second term is about the actual teaching experience which provides the data for the core of this study. This is where the relationship becomes slightly more complicated because discussions of every lesson week after week and mutual expectations come into play, which can eventually have an impact on the language choice of the student teachers.

One of the interesting points emerging from the data is related to how the student teachers feel about working with their supervisors. Their discussions reveal that the student teachers observe the supervisors quite carefully, and try to meet their expectations as much as they can, but also criticize and evaluate them. For instance ST4 seems to be approving of his supervisor's teaching skills.

Our supervisor at school was a very cheerful person. She also made some mistakes, some grammar mistakes or having problems with classroom management. Even so, I think she is a very competent teacher. She does not seem to have a good command in English but she is remarkable in the way she conveys her knowledge to the students,

which is somehow the main point, isn't it? Otherwise any native speaker, for instance, from England would be a very good teacher but that's not the case.

As seen in the extract above, ST4 is rather positive about the performance of his supervisor. However, it is still interesting to see that he mentions the supervisor's grammar mistakes and classroom management. It can be inferred that ST4 observed his supervisor carefully in terms of the subject matter (grammar in this case) and management skills in the classroom. Although he claims that the supervisor is not very competent in English, he appreciates her ability to convey her knowledge, which suggests a rather pragmatic approach on his part. More interestingly, he relates this to native English teachers' teaching skills. This discussion reveals that ST4 believes that a teacher does not have to be 'very competent' in order to teach in a desirable way. He believes that making mistakes are part of the job and the main point is not necessarily to know much, but to be able to convey what you know as a teacher well enough. ST3, on the other hand, has a slightly different impression of her supervisor's approach to her:

She was...err.((exhales)) sometimes she is so nice and helpful but sometimes, I don't know, if you get cross with her she can be a bit upset. She even said 'you are boring me' once. However, overall she was a good guide, especially in terms of feedback.

As seen in the extract, ST3 has a more distant relationship with her supervisor compared to ST4. It might be possible that ST3 compromises her own ideas in order not to make her supervisor upset. The fact that her supervisor tells her that she is

boring is quite important in order to understand her further comments on her relationship with her. However, ST3 still considers the supervisor to be a good guide. She cares about the supervisor's feedback, even if it can be as blunt as 'boring'. This can be regarded as an indication that the student teachers are open to discussion and criticism. ST3 elaborates on her supervisor's behaviours and how she feels about them as follows:

Well I can't talk for other people but I feel she did not pay attention to us the way she should have. She did not treat us as people who are going to be teachers next year. She mostly wanted us to be more passive in this process, you know, she wanted us to sit down and watch her teach instead of watching us teach.

In this extract ST3 expresses her frustration about not being accepted as a professional by the supervisor. She contextualizes 'being paid attention to' as a sign of confirmation of her identity as a teacher. However, she observes that she does not get that rapport from the supervisor and relates this to the supervisor's unwillingness to give the student teachers responsibility. This teacher clearly does not want to be passive during the course; however, she thinks that the supervisor actually does not want them to be active in the teaching process. These discussions are embedded within the series of lesson observations involving both supervisors and the student teachers, and contribute strongly to the impressions the student teachers have about the supervisors. The different approaches that emerge resonate with the approach to code switching. ST2, for instance, claims that her supervisor wanted her to stick to translation:

She sticks to translation. She claims that translation is the best way. From English to Turkish. It is interesting that her pronunciation is rather good although she does not prefer English too much.

ST2 says that her supervisor makes use of direct translation and claims that it is the best way to teach. It is interesting that she points out the supervisor's pronunciation. She believes that if a teacher does not use English enough, this would mean that that teacher is not competent. Therefore, ST2 does not expect her supervisor to have good pronunciation. However, ST2 observes that her supervisor's English pronunciation is good and she therefore cannot understand why the supervisor is not using it to provide exposure for her students. This might be regarded as revealing an underlying assumption of ST2 that a teacher feels the need to use Turkish if he or she is less than fully competent in the target language, and therefore code switching should be avoided because of what it signals. This thought process raises the issues of how much exposure the student teachers feel that they have to provide for their own students. It also implies that the student teachers thinks that the amount of English a teacher uses in class is directly related to the teacher's competence in the target language, which could be source of tension. ST5's supervisor, however, has a completely different approach:

She mostly used English and that was also what I mostly tried to do.

As seen in the extract, ST5's supervisor used English as the medium of the lesson. It is important to point out that ST5 agrees with this approach and follows it voluntarily. This congruence means ST5 and her supervisor did not experience any

tension arising from the language choice because they seem to agree that maximum exposure is the desirable approach. ST4 has a similar experience:

She insisted on using English as the medium in the classroom, which was good. Sometimes she even ignored Turkish responses she received from the students. I think she wanted to give the message like if you don't respond me in English, I will not pay attention. Well the students in this classroom were very good. Maybe that's why she had the luxury of doing that. It was interesting because the students were still a bit reluctant to speak English in the classroom. I had that problem, too. I knew they could understand me when I addressed them in English. But overall she insisted on using English most of the time; let's say 95% of the lesson. 5% of Turkish was mostly used when she was angry with something; you know, to ensure classroom management.

As seen in the extract, ST4 approves of the supervisor's extensive English usage in the classroom. It is also clear that he observes the supervisor's language choice and makes deductions about the possible motivations of the supervisor. It is implied that he copies the behaviour of the supervisor in rejecting communication in Turkish (See Table 23). This behaviour is rationalized on the grounds that 'the students in this classroom were very good'. ST4 implies that if the teacher observes that the students are 'good', code switching is not necessary. Moreover, to be able to avoid Turkish is considered as a luxury by ST4. Despite these, ST4 still mentions the reluctance of the students to speak English. He can observe this problem and it is important to note that he is confident of his stand although he also faces the problematic consequences of the supervisor's approach, which is a potential lack of

spoken interaction because of the students' reluctance to use English. More interestingly, code switching occurs due to classroom management rather than developing language skills, teaching subject matter or practising conversation. This comment demonstrates ST4's awareness of the contexts in which code switching might be legitimate. ST3 makes a similar comment on her supervisor's language choice and how this affects the students:

T: I just want to point out something about the students in this classroom. They are mostly very quiet during the supervisor's lessons. In our classes, they have been more active. Our supervisor did not have any peer work activities or whatsoever. That sometimes included scolding the students severely. Therefore they were a bit intimidated.

R: Did she warn students in Turkish or English?

T: In Turkish. I think her main purpose was to...err... to make students feel embarrassed. I remember a time when she said –tongue in cheek- you can be detained from the break if you don't tell me the correct meaning of a word. I think it is too much and pointless.

ST3 makes similar comments to ST4 in that the students are mostly quiet in supervisor's lessons. However, the difference is that even if ST4 thinks that lack of student participation is a problem, he is in favour of his supervisor's method, which is using Turkish very rarely, preferably for classroom management purposes. ST3, on the other hand, is quite uncomfortable about the way her supervisor handles disciplinary situations using Turkish. ST3 expresses empathy with the students and makes clear that switching Turkish to ensure discipline by embarrassing students is

'too much' and 'pointless'. ST3 points to a moral dimension of code switching in the classroom. She is concerned that the students associate switching to Turkish with an admonitory response to a disciplinary fault they have committed. Therefore, it is likely that code switching has a negative connotation for the students, and as a result is professionally not desirable. ST2 talks about a similar situation after she taught grammar. ST2 previously expressed the view that the subject matter should be embedded within a context rather than following a step-by-step approach. Although ST2 does not agree with the supervisor's approach here, she adopts it herself. Nevertheless, she is not happy about the lesson and the reaction she received from her supervisor:

Our supervisor criticized me after this lesson in that the lesson was very grammar-centred. She said the lesson was very boring and that's why the students did not participate to the lesson actively. I and my teaching partner were very surprised to hear that because the structure of this lesson was her decision.I discussed this with my partner as well. However we decided to go on her way. After the lesson, she told us if only we had covered will and going to separately the whole lesson.....Anyway I don't agree with her criticism because it was almost impossible to cover both and provide active participation along with it.

The extract reveals the frustration ST2 experiences due to the criticism she receives from her supervisor. She clearly insists that she followed the instructions and suggestions of her supervisor in her teaching session and yet is upset because she finds what her supervisor asks of her and the basis of her evaluation are not

consistent with each other. It is also important that a grammar-centred lesson is regarded as 'boring'. In addition to these considerations, ST2 and ST3 argued that the students of this class are already quite intimidated because of the teacher's embarrassing or scolding the students in Turkish. The student teachers clearly do not agree with their supervisor and seem discontented. This discontent is due to a Catch-22 situation that the student teachers are facing. On one hand the student teachers are trying to follow the suggestions of the supervisor teachers in order not to upset them (as is the case for ST2's lesson); on the other hand, the methods they follow are condemned as being 'boring' and 'grammar-centred' by the supervisor. This is a frustrating outcome for the student teachers but it is still important to note that instead of merely being upset about it, they are constantly evaluating their own teaching. In ST1's case; however, supervisor intervention is handled slightly differently and resulted in the use of code switching on the part of the student teacher:

<p>T: There was confusion about frequency adverbs. There was a slight difference in the meaning of the adverb. I can't name it now clearly but I remember students having confusion if it was usually, generally or always. After that my supervisor warned me about it. She said students were confused because I had not made the differences between these adverbs clear. Right after, I had the same word in matching exercise. I had prepared matching questions for words. So as I could not make meaning clear, I needed Turkish to explain the nuances between words. You know, in English some words sound like having the</p>	<p>T1: Ok, tenth line, ok let's check it. Eee giving false excuses sometimes sometimes people hide because they don't want to do something. Ok? Eee orada sometimes olduğu için bazı zamanlar yapıyormuş, o yüzden common bir habit ok? [As there is 'sometimes' there, it means one does it occasionally, therefore counts as a common habit, ok?] the second question? Ayça?</p> <p>S2: true</p> <p>T1: Yes it's true. Do you all agree?</p> <p>S1: yes</p>
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same meaning, but they are all used in different contexts. That's why I needed to switch.	
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Table 30. Extract from the ST1's First Session and Stimulated Recall Interview

As seen in Table 30, ST1 briefly switches to Turkish for further explanation and discusses how she actually comes to the conclusion that she has to switch. This could be an example of the thinking process of a student teacher and how it is influenced by a prompt from the supervisor. First ST1 recognizes a problematic point that her students are struggling with (nuances of meaning of frequency adverbs); however, it is not until her supervisor indicates that point (giving a clear explanation) that she takes action. ST1 takes a note of the point her supervisor makes and re-evaluates what she can do to improve the situation. When she observes that it does not work, she switches to Turkish to make meanings clearer for her students. In ST1's case, the supervisor's guidance on a point makes an important difference, allowing the student teacher to put her finger on the actual problem and take action accordingly. It does not necessarily have to result in code switching but it is an important example which reveals that although it may seem that code switching is simply exchanging between languages for practical purposes within the lesson, its use may arise from a combination of processes that requires careful consideration which can be affected by external factors.

Last but not the least I would like to discuss how the supervisor and the tutor affect the student teachers. As mentioned before, the students have responsibilities to both parties. This might cause some confusion for the student teachers due to different

approaches they suggest to the student teachers. For instance ST3 discusses how she struggles to please her supervisor and tutor:

[Our supervisor told us] Such as the things we better do in particular situations. Well, sometimes it was more than advice, like inducement. We tried to find our way without upsetting her and doing our own thing. The bottom line is, we tried to please our supervisor, our tutor and try to employ our own ways of teaching – we tried to find a middle ground. It was hard to do, I've got to say. It could have been better if we had another supervisor.

It can be inferred that ST3 feels quite trapped between two external sources of guidance (the supervisor and the tutor) and her 'own ways of teaching'. She clearly expresses her discontent with the supervisor due to her extensive interventions. She does not specify what her tutor expected of her but her argument indicates that it is different from the supervisor. Moreover, she wants to employ her own teaching approach, which again seems to be different from that of the supervisor and tutor. This seems to be frustrating for her because she stresses that she and her friends had to find a middle ground between these competing elements. ST3's expression of the frustration she experiences indicates that she, as a student teacher, is aware of the expectations she has to fulfil, yet, she struggles to find a way to prove that she can succeed in her own way of teaching. The practicalities, however, requires a middle ground between these approaches, which can be clearly seen on some code switching occasions. ST2 makes similar comments to ST3 in that the supervisor and

the tutor expect different approaches from time to time but her interpretation of these differences is not the same as that of ST3:

Our supervisor always told us to use Turkish. Our tutor has always told us to have an English dominant classroom whereas he suggested us to use Turkish from time to time. One day our supervisor asked us why we were not using Turkish or translation in lessons and we told her about our tutor's expectations. After she told this to us, we discussed it again and she still claimed that translation is very important. I mean the homework she gives to the students consists of writing the same word with its Turkish meaning 10 times. But she is also aware that this is an old way of teaching and she told this as well. She said she did not have any other choice and this being the only way to teach. Maybe it's because of the students' level. Maybe they can't do memorization. She is a very experienced teacher, for 14 years. I respect her opinions; she must have tried and failed.

As seen above, ST2 reveals the different positions of the tutor and the supervisor in terms of the language choice in the classroom. This is a significant difference especially for how it affects code switching. ST2 implies that she does not follow the supervisor's approach but the tutor's as she does not use Turkish or translation. The discussion reveals that the supervisor firmly believes that her teaching approach works best even though she knows that the tutor disagrees with her. This is important because it refers to the notion of finding the middle ground between the supervisor and the tutor. It can be inferred that during the discussion ST2 points out that translation and the vocabulary homework are old fashioned teaching methods

and the supervisor agrees with it. This reveals that ST2 does question the validity of the supervisor's opinions. Upon hearing the supervisor's unchanged ideas, she starts to speculate on the possible reasons why the supervisor insists on her stand. Her brainstorming ends up with the credibility she gives to the supervisor due to her experience. ST1, on the other hand, favours the tutor's ideas without a reservation:

In general I did not do the way she [the supervisor] wanted me to. Because ((chuckles)) of our tutor in a way. I mean he told us to do the right thing in class. In a way it is a very strong stand but he said 'you are not responsible to her [supervisor] but to me'. You are supposed to do the right thing in class, the ideal thing. My supervisor sometimes gave us some advice most of the time like if you do this and that it would be better type of thing. However, these things were mostly the things she wanted. I mean, she had her way of teaching reading and vocabulary but I did not want to teach like her.

As seen in the extract, ST1 makes it clear that she absolutely did not wish to follow the supervisor's suggestions depending on the 'responsibility' she feels to the tutor. A key point here is doing the 'right thing', 'the ideal thing in classes. As discussed before and on other sections, the tutor favours an English medium class but the supervisors tend to use Turkish more. This issue of language use emerges as a point of difference between the supervisor and the tutor and underlines or is implicated in other differences. In this case, ST1 declares how she resists to the suggestions that her supervisor made especially while teaching reading and vocabulary. She elaborates on one of these different approaches in reading as follows:

For example, as for reading, our tutor told us that we should make students read the texts very fast. He said that these students are private school students, they must have done plenty and exposed to language well enough. Make them read the text fast and ask questions right after. Make them speak a lot and allow them to make deductions with comprehension questions. But the supervisor told us to read the text out loud first, and then make a student read out loud, and then let students read again silently. It did not sound enjoyable to me. I think reading again and again is boring. Our tutor once said reading is just for reading.

ST1's constant evaluation and discussion of both methods suggested continues. She remembers what the tutor said word by word and makes the difference between the two very clear. This time she makes her decision on the right method judging the two in terms of the affective dimension. She says the method that her supervisor suggested is 'boring' and refers to the tutor's idea once again, which is reading is just for reading. It can be inferred that ST1 prefers activities that include more interaction while covering a reading passage such as asking comprehension questions and encouraging the students to make deductions. She wants to make her students speak and interact with each other. In other words, she chooses to use the reading material as a tool to spark spoken interaction in the classroom.

The discussion of the data above reveals how the supervisors influence the teaching and the learning processes of the student teachers. This seems to be an inevitable consequence of the teaching practice course; however, it is important to note how

the multiple correlations between the supervisors, the tutor and the student teachers play a role in influencing code switching in the classroom. These roles will be broader than one relating only to code switching; however, it is important to note that code switching enables us to recognise this influence in a wider context in which it is embedded. The contribution of these points has an effect on the teacher's identities. The important points are summed up below:

- The student teachers feel obliged to follow the supervisors' suggestions because of the score supervisors will assign to them. Although this is an important factor, the data reveals that the student teachers do not necessarily follow everything the supervisors want them to. They do not think that dominant use of Turkish in the classroom is desirable.
- The student teachers are constantly observing the supervisors and are not reluctant to discuss their feelings and expectations with them. One of them tries to find a middle ground, while another one thinks even if she does not agree with the supervisor's ideas - she respects her because of her experience. Another student teacher praises the supervisor's ability to convey her knowledge to her students even referring to a comparison to native English speaker teachers. In other words, competence in a language does not necessarily mean that you are a good teacher.
- According to one student teacher, competence in English is related to the language choice. If a teacher is competent in English, for instance, he/she should not be reluctant to use it. Dominant Turkish usage is seen as an

indication of lack of competence in the target language. This is something they all find frustrating.

- Code switching might pick up negative connotations due to a teacher's inappropriate usage of Turkish in order to restore discipline. One of the student teachers states that switching to Turkish in order to humiliate the students is pointless and wrong, which ultimately results in her avoidance of code switching in order not to remind the students of this.
- When the student teachers feel that they are treated unfairly by the supervisor, they become quite upset. When the student teachers are asked to cover a lesson in a particular way asked by their supervisors and then criticized because of the method they are obliged to use, they are discouraged and feel frustrated.
- The contradictory suggestions coming from the supervisor and the tutor are a source of tension, often producing a situation in which it is hard to find middle ground and the student teacher is obliged to adopt one approach or the other.

In this chapter I have discussed the themes emerging from the data derived from bringing together relevant classroom transcripts and excerpts from the interviews and the stimulated recall interviews. One of the most striking conclusions I arrived at was the fact that code switching plays a substantial role in exploring student teachers' beliefs, identities and feelings in a broader context rather than simply

displaying a linguistic variety in classroom interaction. In next chapter, I discuss these findings within the framework of the literature related to code switching and see how my findings point to the value of considering code choice and code switching in teacher education programmes.

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

As the literature review revealed, early studies on code switching focused on functions of code switching in bilingual contexts aiming to unearth sociolinguistic, psychological and syntactic aspects of speech in multilingual social settings (e.g. Blom and Gumperz, 1972; Auer, 1998; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Ataş, 2012). Then the research paradigm shifted to investigate the communicative and pedagogical functions of code switching in language classrooms (Martin-Jones, 1995; Flyman and Burenhult, 1999; Macaro, 2001, Seidlitz, 2003, Üstünel, 2004; Sert, 2005; Nil and Paramasivam, 2012). As a result of these investigations code switching has been accepted as a systematic act of language choice (Levine, 2011) which includes conversational considerations (Auer, 1984; Li Wei, 1998, 2000). These conversational considerations initially involved communicative functions and frequency of code switching. More contemporary approaches, however, focus on the actual flow of conversation and the analysis of talk with a special focus on code switching (Martin-Jones, 1995). In this thesis I use the latter, as a foundation for understanding the factors influencing code switching behaviour in the classroom.

The findings of this thesis suggest a new dimension to an understanding of code switching and how it affects the interaction in the classroom. Code switching is more than a linguistic phenomenon that can be observed; it is also at least to some extent a reflection of fundamental beliefs about teaching. However, there is evidence of something even more interesting than this: these teachers also appear to be motivated in their approach to code switching by how they would like to see

themselves as teachers. In order to explicate this relationship, in what follows I address each of my research questions in turn.

5.2. Patterns of Code switching

The data analysis revealed that there are two broad patterns in the student teachers' code switching: linguistic and communicative. This finding is line with the suggestion of Alvarez-Cáccamo's (1998) suggestion of patterns in code switching. The occurrence of linguistic code switching manifested itself in terms of translation of relevant vocabulary and phrases into Turkish. For instance, ST1 makes use of direct translation of a question she addresses to her students in order to ensure comprehension (Table 27). Other examples include ST2's translation of 'spontaneous' into Turkish after observing her students' confusion (Table 25) and her question about what 'future tense' means, in order to *avoid* confusion (Table 17). These translations occur mostly during grammar instruction.

Communicative code switching patterns are also used for the purposes of explanation and comprehension checking among student teachers and the aim in using code switching for these teachers is to communicate meaning and co-construct comprehension. For instance, ST1 switches to Turkish to provide a further explanation of adverbial clauses of manner (Table 6) and with a specific focus on unreal situations in adverbial clauses of manner (Table 18), and tense change in forming as if/as though sentences (Table 21). The extracts reveal that teachers tend to switch to Turkish most while teaching grammar. ST2, for example, switches to

Turkish to explain referring to future events (Table 17) to explain the usage of 'will' with a specific focus (Table 9). There is also evidence of individual patterns in data. For example, ST1 makes use of code switching in receiving and responding to students' questions (Table 22) to ensure comprehension.

The occurrences of code switching patterns can be considered in terms of Auer's (1984) identification of sequential patterns of language choice using the analytic framework used provided by conversation analysis. There are several patterns suggested by Auer but I discuss the ones that have emerged from my data set. The first pattern is as follows:

Pattern I: ...A1 A2 A1 A2 // B1 B2 B1 B2...

According to this pattern, speaker A starts with language A and the rest of the speakers follow the same language. However, at some point during the talk, the speaker switches to language B and the rest of the conversation flows in the same language. This pattern of conversation can be observed in extract 19. In this class, ST1 initiates the talk in the L2 and receives the first response from a student in the L2. Upon asking the meaning of a word in English, she receives the first response in Turkish and she continues providing further explanations in Turkish. A reverse situation takes place in the extract presented in table 18 with the same pattern. This time teacher initiates the talk in Turkish and receives a question in Turkish from the students. However, when it comes to giving an example sentence, she continues her talk entirely in English.

In the second pattern of code switching, the speaker consistently uses language A but the other speaker uses language B, which builds as follows:

Pattern II: ...A1 B2 A1 B2 A1 B2 A1 B2...

An example of this pattern can be observed in the extract presented in table 23. In this sequence of conversation, ST4 clearly states that he will not 'allow' Turkish usage in the classroom in English. However, the responses he receives are in Turkish; students state that they do not understand what he says. A student even translates what he says in English into Turkish and yet he keeps talking in English even though his students continue talking in Turkish. Of course, this pattern conventionally not sustainable for a long time (Wei, 2013), as a result of which, it produces a pattern like this:

Pattern III: ...AB1 AB2 AB1 AB2...

This pattern shows that speakers might change codes within a turn, leading to a change of code within a sentence. The reason for this might be related to purposes of the interaction, or the code choice at a particular time might be simply preferred in order to ensure comprehension and the flow of the conversation. In fact, this is the most frequently observed pattern for the student teachers in this study. Exchanges illustrated in table 17, 21, 22, 24 and 28 show examples of targeted language code switching based on this pattern. For instance, ST1 starts her talk using English first, then switches to Turkish within a sentence and continues to

provide further explanation for the subject matter in Turkish without a prompt from her students.

These patterns were the ones that formed the basis for the selection of extracts for the stimulated recall interviews and which informed the individual interviews. The discussion in the following sections addresses the findings deriving from these.

5.3 Factors Influencing Code Switching

The individual interviews and the stimulated recall interviews revealed that there are several factors influencing student teachers' code switching in the classroom. In the literature, these factors have been broadly discussed in terms of the functions they serve (Gumperz, 1982; Auer, 1998; Eldridge, 2006; Ayeomoni, 2006).

The most frequently mentioned factor influencing student teachers' code switching is related to teaching grammar. All student teachers recognise and are very explicit about the fact that they code switch most while teaching grammar. What happened in teaching grammar was both observed by me and expressed by the student teachers, who said that code switching was used in order to provide explanations and clarification. This is in line with Ferguson's (2003, p. 39) categorization of code switching for curriculum access which involves the teachers' clarifying or negotiating meaning by using code switching. As discussed in the grammar teaching section of the data analysis, the student teachers did indeed code switch to provide explanations of grammatical items for the students and they expressed the view that they had to code switch most during grammar instruction. This finding is

also in line with Numrich (1996), who claims that one of the most frequently mentioned cause of frustration for the student teachers is teaching grammar effectively. My study sheds light on what 'effectively' involves in terms of code switching. It is clear from their comments that these student teachers want to teach in a way that maximises opportunities for interaction in the target language and is sensitive to the needs and classroom responses of their students, whether related to linguistic or affective aspects of the lesson and that the lesson content and the supervision affects them substantially, especially in terms of the teacher they would like to become. At this point code switching stands as a crucial factor in helping to understand how these factors relate to each other.

This is the general picture for the grammar teaching; however, interview sessions brought up another dimension to an understanding of the student teachers' thoughts about their language choice. They did not oppose the idea of switching to Turkish during the lesson but did not feel very content when they had to do it. This idea is in line with Auerbach's (1993), Izumi's (1995), and Sert's (2005) statements about teachers' feeling 'ashamed' of using L1 in the classroom and fits with Willis's (1981), Turnbull's (2001) and Cook's (2001) recommendation of maximizing the usage of the target language in EFL classroom. Although the student teachers feel that they have to be the content provider in the classroom and have to respond to advice from the supervisor or the tutor, it is nevertheless a source of frustration for them. On one hand there is the notion of "speaking and using English in the classroom as often as you can" (Willis, 1981) but on the other hand to what extent they should do this is a fuzzy area for them.

Another factor influencing code switching is the student teachers' perceptions of their own language competence. The thought of not having adequate knowledge about the language compared with a native English speaker teacher haunts the perceptions of the student teachers and triggers code switching occasionally (Reves and Medgyes, 1994; Duff and Uchida, 1997; Varghese et. al. 2005; Miller, 2007; Bukor, 2011). ST1, for example, expresses her deep dislike of teaching a grammatical item because she herself did not know what the structure she was supposed to teach was called (Table 15). In line with ST1, ST4 clearly states that she feels extremely upset when she cannot handle particular situations in English as this reflects badly on her own competence. This is in line with the equivalence function of code switching suggested by Eldridge (2006). A student or teacher cannot find the right equivalent item in the target language, so they feel the need to switch into Turkish in order to ensure communication. Sert (2005) claims that this might be closely related to the deficiency in L2 competence, which is the feeling of these student teachers.

Another factor influencing code switching is to provide further and clearer explanations to students. This is in accordance with the student teachers' constant monitoring of the students and the reactions of the latter to the instruction they are receiving. If the teachers observe that their students do not react to their prompts, they code switch deliberately and strongly believe that it is necessary in those situations. An example of this can be observed in the extract presented in Table 27. The teacher tries to direct her students' attention to the questions about the reading passage she is covering and yet upon observing boredom and a lack of interest on

the part of the students, she feels the need to switch into Turkish to provide a clear explanation of how to give proper answers to the questions related to the reading passage. ST2 asserts a similar point in that she observes physical reactions of her students such as their looks and lack of reaction indicating they need further explanation on a point she is making (Table 25). Therefore, she chooses to switch into Turkish in order to communicate her message during the lesson.

In the following sections, I discuss the themes based on the interviews and the stimulated recall interviews I conducted in relation to the relevant classroom extracts that illustrated the patterns and the functions of code switching.

5.4 Code switching and beliefs about teaching

The existence of teacher beliefs has been a topic of interest in the field of teacher education, prompted by a need to understand teacher cognition by going beyond the display of subject matter knowledge (Burns, 2009; Borg, 2009). Its proponents argue that one cannot understand the teaching process just by looking into teachers' practical and pedagogic content knowledge and instead they examine how they apply this knowledge and skills in lessons. Burns (2009) states that the way teachers reflect on their personal response to issues such as classroom context, teachers' general and instructional goals, the learners' motivations and reactions to the lesson and teachers' management of critical moments during a lesson are the core elements of teacher cognition and the construction of teachers' beliefs and principles. The findings of this study are in line with this argument in that the individual interviews

and the stimulated recall interviews reveal strong connections between the classroom experience and the beliefs the student teachers have.

Borg (2009) sees this in terms of teacher cognition and states that teacher cognition's main concern is to explore "the unobservable dimension of teaching – teachers' mental lives" (p. 163). He states that teacher cognition has been a widely researched area since the mid-1990s and involves understanding "the thoughts, knowledge, and beliefs that influence what teachers do" (p. 163). The findings of my study are closely related to this statement in that the student teachers shared and discussed how the experience of teaching affected their thinking process and beliefs about teaching. However, the relevance of code switching on shaping these beliefs, especially in relation to the supervision has not been brought to the surface in previous research.

One outcome is very much in line with the tension a student teacher experiences in Johnson's (1996) study in which the vision of the teacher does not match the actual teaching experience. This is the case for ST4 (Table 23), for example. He clearly asks his students to respond to him in English; as a matter of fact, this is the first thing he asks his students to do. Failing to receive the reaction he expects to receive, he considers this incident as 'funny' and his way of 'showing his attitude' to the students. He sees himself as the content provider in the classroom and feels responsible for the L2 exposure, which in his terms means that he is responsible for insisting on maximum exposure to the language. This attitude echoes Cook's (2001)

suggestion of using the L2 as much as possible in order to provide target language exposure.

Projections of a teacher self like this, when exposed to the actual contingencies in the classroom contribute to the frustration student teachers feel, especially when they do not agree with the suggestions of their supervisors. Wagner (1987) discusses these emotional thought processes entwined with professional concerns affecting the teachers' instructions as the "knots in teachers' thinking" (p. 161). These knots of "anxiety, anger, and stress, as well as attachment, desire, and identification, can be viewed as having one factor in common – they imply an imperative demand that something 'must' or 'must not' occur (p. 162)." For my student teachers, one of these 'must not occur' events is excessive switching to Turkish. When it occurs, an affective conflict occurs because this does not match with the teacher they project themselves to be. When they have an inner conflict about this, the result can impact on their classroom performance, for example, in the form of a more tense behaviour, such as ignoring attempts of students who would like to speak up (Wagner, 1987). ST4, for instance, repeatedly resists responding to a student's response in Turkish for the sake of establishing his image as a teacher who only speaks English (Table 23) and as part of his overall strategy of maximising English use in the classroom.

One of the areas that causes conflicts within student teachers' beliefs about code switching is teaching grammar. As stated by the student teachers, they have to switch to Turkish more frequently when teaching grammar than when teaching other aspects of language. The reason for the need to switch to Turkish stems partly

from feeling of inadequacy in their content knowledge. The student teachers in my study expressed concerns about inadequacy in their knowledge of grammar, which led to further dislike of teaching grammar. This is not, however, a surprising finding as both native and non-native teachers reflect concern in terms of competencies in grammar knowledge (Andrew, 1994; Borg, 2006).

Another issue worth consideration based on my findings is the student teachers' beliefs about teaching grammar and the role code switching plays along in this. First of all, although they believed that grammar should be taught (Schweers, 1997), the approaches they believed to be effective contradicted their supervisors at times, which caused frustration. For example, ST1 notes her hesitation about teaching 'as if/as though' sentences by using its grammatical labelling (as she refers to it) as 'adverbial clauses of manner' (Table 7). However, she states that her supervisor asked her to introduce the subject by using labelling instead of employing an inductive approach, which clearly creates a frustration. Similarly, ST2 states that she would prefer introducing grammatical structures to refer to future events by contextualising them rather than providing a step by step explanation suggested by her supervisor. Additionally, their prior language learning experiences had an impact on how they approached grammar teaching. This finding is in accordance with Farrell's (1999) study in that they constantly made comparisons with the way they had been taught English, regardless of its being deductive or inductive. My study's contribution to this discussion would be that code switching provides a link between the teacher beliefs about teaching and the content they are teaching, which is grammar in this case. Previous studies mentioned here focuses on the beliefs

about grammar teaching, but the findings in my study points to the role code switching plays in understanding this relationship.

In addition to these considerations, student teachers' beliefs about what constituted effective teaching, the suggestions they received from their supervisors and their own language learning experiences all contributed to a complex cognitive foundation for their approach to teaching grammar. They sometimes regarded grammar teaching as 'boring', echoing Farrell's (1999) findings, and expressed frustration regarding the decisions they were supposed to make. The process of decision-making revealed a number of factors lying behind the act of code switching itself, that have been ignored in research on this topic, which has tended to focus on either patterns of switching, its cultural context or the conversational mechanics involved. These factors appear to be bound up with the supervision process and the relationship with the supervisor, and with the student teachers' perceptions of their professional identity.

Apart from the beliefs discussed above, student teachers believe that their lessons should be enjoyable. This is an indication of their constant evaluation of their own teaching performance and consequently having concerns about how it must feel like to be a student in their own lessons. This is in line with Burns's (1992) suggestion that teacher beliefs influence the approach to language teaching and their instructional practices with reference to affective reasoning and their own image as teachers in the classrooms. For instance, ST2 states that she does not want her classes to be dull and she tries to make her lessons fun for her students (Section

4.4.3). Similarly, ST4 says that he aims to create a friendly atmosphere in his lessons (Section 4.4.3). Another example worth mentioning in this context is ST2's experience while giving instructions for a communicative activity. As seen in the extract in Table 26, she states that she preferred giving instructions in Turkish rather than giving them in English because using English would be a nightmare for comprehension purposes. This preference echoes Johnson's suggestion (1991) that teacher beliefs affect their instructional decisions in the classroom. Moreover, ST2's behaviour in this context might be regarded in terms of a function-based approach, which is one of the methodological approaches Johnson suggests. ST2 observes that insisting on using English while giving instructions for the activity might create confusion for her students and cause frustration for herself. Therefore, she makes a functional choice in order to avoid these potential problems and makes use of code switching as a pedagogical tool.

Student teachers' beliefs on their own teaching and how the approach in the classroom affects their students are related to their own understanding of being an effective teacher and the impact of this on their students' learning (Zheng, 2009). Their self-perception of being an effective teacher is also closely related to being an effective facilitator in the lesson (McLean and Bullard, 2000). They believe that they should provide exposure to English in the classroom. In section 4.4.3, ST4 clearly states that it is his responsibility to ensure that English usage is maximised. He relates this idea to his own language learning experience in that even though he has been dealing with English for 13 years himself, he still considers himself as less than competent especially in speaking. Therefore, he thinks that he should not follow the

same steps of his own teachers who minimised English usage. According to him, the more his students practice English facilitated by him, the better their competence will become. This is the basis of his belief that he should as far as possible avoid switching to Turkish.

5.5 Code switching and teacher identity

The findings of this research reveal strong relationships between aspects of teacher identity and code switching. Student teachers make frequent references to their selves, professional development, and the image of the teacher they would like to become. Johnson (2003) defines teacher identity as the constructed, altered and rational representation of one's self in relation to how a teacher sees himself/herself and how others see them within the teaching experience and negotiation of these positions. An example of this perception is evident in ST3's experience (Section 4.4.4.). She claims that her supervisor did not treat her as a teacher and actually wanted her to be in a passive role during the teaching experience. This feeling of not being regarded as a teacher is clearly an upsetting feeling for ST3. She sees herself as a teacher and would like to be treated as one. However, her statement reveals that the negotiation of her identity with the supervisor has broken down.

One of the most frequently mentioned issue in establishing an identity as a teacher is the kind of the teacher student teachers would like to become. This involves taking decisions and adopting approaches according to how to be, how to act, and how to understand as a teacher (Sachs, 2005). For example, ST5 states that English should be the medium of her lessons (Section, 4.4.3). She acknowledges the potential

comprehension problems she might have during the lessons but she thinks that her students will get used to her consistent English input in time, which reveals her attitude towards sustaining an English-only classroom and creating an image of a teacher who only uses English. Similarly, ST1 claims that persistence in using English results in success in terms of establishing comprehension in English (Section 4.4.2). Her projected image of self is related to being a teacher who does not give in to switching into Turkish and she thinks that her students will get used to her style in time. The same of course, applies to ST5, as illustrated earlier.

One of the evidences elicited from the data is that student teachers' identity construction seems to be heavily influenced by their supervisors. Supervisors partly represent the institutional bodies in their evaluation of their teaching process. Gee (2001) touches on this issue by suggesting sub-identities are developed by student teachers, one of which is the institutional identity.

Miller (2009) has argued that attitudes and social capital are the factors that directly influence teacher identity and this combination, sometimes in opposition, seems to characterise aspects of identity construction in my context. Student teachers in my study mostly struggle with their supervisors especially with respect to their suggestions on the language choice. For instance, ST2 states that she does not agree with her supervisor about using predominantly Turkish in class (Table 8). Even though she does not particularly subscribe to her supervisor's point of view, she feels obliged to follow her suggestions. Thus, this creates a frustration within her own image of the teacher she would like to become. Similarly, ST3 states that she

would prefer not to introduce the topic of making passive sentences deductively as suggested by her supervisor (Section 4.4.1). This is bound to ST3's own language learning experience as well.

5.6 Supervision in teacher development in relation to code switching

One of the most interesting findings of the analysis is what it reveals about the impact of the supervision on student teachers' language choice. Supervision comes from two sources: the supervisor and the tutor of the student teachers. Supervisors are the actual teachers, teaching the particular classes that the student teachers are assigned to teach and the tutor is the person who is responsible for the teaching practice lesson at the university. Evaluation of the student teachers is carried out by these two people and it is interesting to see how they affect the student teachers' actions and thinking processes relating to their own teaching identity, which is potentially a very important aspect of their development as teachers.

Second language teacher training has developed from merely including what teachers should teach to a focus on how teachers should teach (Freeman, 2009). This approach introduced new perspectives on language teacher development such as redefining the boundaries of the profession and aiming to explore the potential of alternative conceptions of teaching (Freeman, 2009). These new boundaries and varieties of alternative conceptions have been explored in terms of the practice of teaching and how this process affects the student teachers. The process involves constant interaction between the student teachers and the supervision process, one of the aims of which is to stimulate the teacher thinking processes.

The most striking example of this in my study involved teaching grammar using code switching, where a clear difference between what the student teachers and the supervisors believed to be right emerged. One of these differences involved how code switching should be embedded in the teaching process. The student teachers agree that code switching has to occur while teaching grammar; however, they make it very clear that they are not content with the fact that this is a necessity. Thus, teaching grammar subjects emerges as the least enjoyable skill to teach.

The interesting point here is the relationship between the student teachers' view of the topic and their approach to code switching. Whereas they regard code switching as undesirable in other contexts, here they see it as a practical necessity given the context in which they have to work. The distinction may be associated with the fact that in this school grammar is approached as though it is a matter of transferring content rather than developing skills. This suggests that these student teachers make an implicit distinction between language teaching, which is essentially a matter of developing linguistic skills, and teaching about language, which involves the acquisition of knowledge. At this point, the disagreement with the supervisors comes to the fore. ST1 (Section 4.4.2.), ST2 (Table 8), and ST3 (4.4.1) state that their supervisors urged them to use Turkish extensively while teaching grammar. This view contradicts how these teachers see themselves, and how they construct their professionalism (Varghese, 2006). This does not mean that they abandon the use of Turkish in grammar instruction altogether. Instead, they would like to establish functional usages of Turkish so that their perceptions of selves and the actual classroom usage of code switching find a middle ground.

The findings of my study resonate with Levine's (2014) suggestions relating to the functions of code switching as he claims that code switching is used "for explicit focus on grammatical forms or vocabulary for comprehension and/or learning" (p. 337). In my study, student teachers make use of code switching while giving instructions. Schmidt (1993) states that merely focusing attention on forms and lexical items does not necessarily mean that acquisition of these items occurs; therefore, 'grammaring' should be meaningful (Larsen-Freeman, 2003). Although this is also my student teachers' position towards grammar instruction, this does not mean that they share the same ideals as their supervisors. This is a source of frustration for the student teachers. On one hand, they have their own beliefs on how to be a competent teacher and on the other they feel obliged to follow their supervisor's suggestions. For instance, ST1 claims that teaching grammar by labelling is not a feasible way of teaching and should be avoided even though her supervisor suggested to her that she should do the opposite (4.4.1). Out of frustration she has to refer to code switching in order to explain to her students what the arbitrary label means and follows her supervisor's suggestion of an approach to which she does not subscribe.

Another significant impact of the supervisors on teaching process is the disagreements over code choice and their affective impacts. For example, ST1 states that disagreement between the suggestions she received from the supervisor and the tutor caused confusion in her teaching process (Section, 4.4.3.). The supervisor's approach to dealing with a reading activity was rather different than the tutor's. While the supervisor advised her to read the extract out loud first and then make

her students to read silently, her tutor advised her to make her students read the extract fast and complete the related exercises. ST1 notes that it was difficult to decide on the approach she should follow in the mentioned situation because she thought that the supervisor's approach was 'boring' and 'not enjoyable'. She evaluates the suggestions of the tutor and the supervisor in terms of their affective impact on her and her students rather than their pedagogical implications.

In section 4.4.4., ST3 discusses her supervisor's attitudes towards her and her students. She firstly notes that although her supervisor could be regarded as a good guide overall, the supervisor once described ST3's lesson as 'boring' due to her insistence on using English in her lesson. In addition to this, ST3 observed that her students were more active in her own lesson compared to the supervisor's lessons because she would 'scold' her students in Turkish and her aim was to embarrass her students, which is 'too much' and 'pointless' according to ST3. It can be argued that ST3 does not approve of the supervisor's approach both in terms of the language choice and its affective terms.

5.7 Implications for teacher training and supervision

L2 teacher training research has manifested a shift from a behaviourist approach to cognitive, in-situ and socially constructed practices of teaching (Johnson, 2009). In this respect, the teacher learning process has been recognised as a socially negotiated entity based on the knowledge of self, content, and the context (Cobb and Bowers, 1999; Johnson, 2009). Therefore, how student teachers learn and what learning involves in that context has been recognised to be significant. Based on this

recognition, the knowledge of student teachers in the teacher training context involves three areas that reflect the ways teacher training is carried out. These areas are defined by Johnson (2009) as the content of teacher education programmes (what student teachers need to know), the pedagogies taught in ELT teacher training programmes (how student teachers should teach), and the ways both the content and the pedagogies are learnt (how student teachers learn to teach).

Seen from this perspective, code switching has also been through a similar journey: earlier it was recognised as a mostly undesirable (Cook, 2001) “peculiar” act (Luckmann, 1983, p. 97 cited in Auer, 1998) but more recently its pedagogical underpinnings have attracted more interest with the result that predominantly socio-psycholinguistic aspects of code switching have been investigated (Martin-Jones, 1995; Flyman & Burenhult, 1999; Macaro, 2001; Seidlitz, 2003; Greggio and Gil, 2007). These aspects involve investigating the function, reasons, motivations and interactional patterns of code switching; however, little if any research has been done on its contribution to teacher training programmes. In fact, Adendorff (1996) states that particular sensitivity towards code switching should be developed and this sensitivity should form a part of teacher training programmes. Moreover, he concludes that the acceptance of code switching as a sign of bilingual competence which offers speakers communicative power and hence social power should be encouraged. The findings of my study also point to the importance of making use of code switching as a rich resource for investigation in the teacher training curriculum. The current body of research on code switching might lead to valuable conclusions about how it contributes to interaction in the EFL classrooms; however,

code switching also needs to be studied in itself within the scope of teacher training research as well as the part of preparation for the teaching practice. This would be likely to promote better understanding of the different functions that code switching can serve in the classroom and would allow trainees to explore the thinking behind code choice in this context. They could even be encouraged to reflect on how their views on code switching relate to their wider beliefs about ELT.

The findings also reveal how the role of supervision or mentoring can have an important impact in terms of handling code switching in EFL classrooms, which also suggests important insights for teacher training programmes. The research into language teacher mentoring has mostly focused on generic issues (Brown, 2001). For instance, Brown discusses the clashes of two different approaches picked up by the students and their supervisors, which are traditional ways and communicative approaches. In my study, student teachers make reference to this clash of ideas which particularly occurs in the context of language choice. Student teachers claim that they aim to employ inductive and communicative methods while their supervisors sometimes urge them to do otherwise. The findings of my study reveal that this sort of clash in matters of beliefs about teaching often crystallises in terms of issues of language choice, and yet little is known about the extent to which these clashes affect student teachers' instructional decisions, cognitions, and thus, identities. These are issues that might be addressed in the process of teacher preparation for their teaching practice, but supervisors are making their contributions to student teachers based on their own experiences and beliefs about

teaching, so the inclusion of this topic in supervisor training could also be a valuable innovation.

To sum up, in practical terms I have suggested that code switching as a topic can contribute to the preparation for teaching practice in two ways:

- 1) Teacher training programmes can include at the very least a discussion of code switching with a specific focus on its implementation in Teaching Practice. Ideally, it would form a part of the curriculum, perhaps within more practical modules such as those dealing with classroom management.
- 2) Supervisors/mentors training can at least be made aware of the importance of code switching in terms of its relationship to broader methodological issues and teacher beliefs.

I came to these conclusions starting from the questions that triggered my attention to study code switching in the first place, which turned out to be a more pervasive element in teaching practice than I had originally envisaged. In the concluding chapter, I consider some of the implications of this.

6. CONCLUSION

Vogt (1954) once suggested that code switching may not be a linguistic phenomenon but a psychological one, and yet, it is of more interest to a linguist because it involves the interplay of two languages. My thesis suggests that these two aspects need to be considered together: Even though code switching is a linguistic phenomenon, it is also a rather strong indication of a person's thought processes. Over time, research into code switching has become quite varied, especially in sociolinguistic contexts (Coogan, 2003; Hurtado, 2002; Myers-Scotton, 1998), but it has not featured in work exploring teacher thought processes. My thesis goes some way towards redressing this by suggesting that the connection may be a fruitful one.

In this study, I claim that code switching is more than a linguistic matter and has a direct impact on a teacher's decision making process, and more importantly this research suggests that attitudes to code switching and code switching practices in the classroom may be strongly indicative of individual teachers' characteristics and identity. In short, code switching is closely related to how a teacher sees himself/herself. Even its absence offers an insight into a teacher's professional self-perception and it is not merely related to the level of linguistics knowledge and/or maximization of the L2; it is connected how a teacher defines himself/herself as a teacher, the image they would like to show, and the role they would like to play as a teacher.

Another important aspect of code switching is its impact, direct or indirect, through the affective dispositions of the teachers. Feeling frustrated, even guilty, or switching to L1 in the classroom is not only an indication of worries shared by student teachers, it is in fact closely related to the beliefs of those teachers (Macaro, 2005; Edstrom, 2006) and how they relate these to their actual classroom actions. If there is a contradiction between their ideal way of teaching and classroom contingencies arising from factors such as the level of their students, their response to this may be reflected in how code switching manifests itself in the classroom. The most striking finding that encapsulates all these factors can be observed in the grammar teaching of the student teachers in my study. Their attitude towards grammar teaching draws my particular attention to the broader implications of code switching. They all stated that grammar was the most disliked content they had to teach during the practicum and a natural assumption would be that this was related to their own language competence, which was indeed a factor but only part of a bigger picture: student teachers disliked teaching grammar because they frequently had to switch into Turkish. Several researchers have studied the relationship between grammar teaching practice and teacher cognitions (e.g. Andrews, 1994; Borg, 2003) in terms of knowledge about the language, beliefs about grammar teaching and cognitions in teaching grammar but to my knowledge without making a reference to the role of code switching. The results of my study suggest that code switching has a close relationship with, and may be indicative of cognitions in the grammar teaching process and this relationship manifests itself also in aspects of the beliefs and identities of the student teachers.

The extent to which these findings reveal the relevance of code switching to the experiences of these student teachers suggests that the neglect of this topic in the teacher preparation programme and the curriculum more generally needs to be reassessed. The discussion reveals that student teachers are in a position where they are not provided with an adequate foundation for negotiating their own beliefs about teaching, the expectations of the supervisor and the contingencies in the classroom. It seems that the factors shaping their beliefs are based on their own language learning experiences, the courses they take during the teacher preparation programme and their ideal self as a teacher. When they start teaching in a classroom, all these factors come together, but without clear guidance from the supervisor or the tutor. In this context, code switching may be indicative of struggles the teachers are facing and could serve as a potentially valuable focus for discussion and reflection. From this perspective the main role of code switching ceases to be merely a linguistic feature and turns into a tool to illuminate various aspects of teacher cognition. In teacher preparation and practicum supervision to date, its potential in this respect seems to have been neglected.

6.1. Limitations of the Study

There are some factors that limit the relevance of this study. Firstly, I worked with five student teachers in the study. The fact that the number of participants is small might be considered as a limitation because this can be regarded as a drawback in terms of the generalizability of the outcomes of this study. However, I collected a substantial amount of data, which enabled me to investigate the issues related to my research questions in considerable depth. This produced findings that have opened

a window onto aspects of code switching that have been neglected and this might not have emerged in a larger scale but less in-depth project.

Secondly, the fact that I carried out this study at one school might be considered as a limitation. I understand that investigating the topics I raised in this study in different contexts would provide a better foundation for arriving at broader conclusions. However, this would have necessitated a different approach (perhaps based on more structured interviews and/or questionnaires) and this would not have allowed me to provide detailed answers to my research questions. Another limitation in relation to the context might be the nature of the school where I conducted this study. This was a private school and I may have been led to draw different conclusions if I had worked with student teachers who taught at a state school, but I was unable to do this due to bureaucratic difficulties. In any case, it could be argued that if the struggles I have identified occur in the relatively privileged context of a private school, there is no reason to suppose that they would not be found in the less advantageous setting of a public school.

In addition to these two limitations, I should add the fact that I did not explore the tutor's or the university's views of the place that code switching might have in their courses and their views of its relevance. This means that my proposals for change must remain speculative at this point.

6.2. Future Directions for Research

This study has revealed that code switching constitutes more than just a linguistic feature in language teaching classrooms. It might have close relationships with the underlying thinking processes of student teachers and a closer investigation of these thinking processes might reveal knots in teacher thinking. I believe that language teaching programmes in Turkey and in other EFL contexts for that matter can benefit from addressing code switching in a more contextual manner, aiming at more relevant pedagogical goals that might enable student teachers to develop greater awareness of their beliefs about teaching and hence to become confident when they start their teaching career. I would like to suggest several future research directions based on this:

- I conducted this study with student teachers who taught at a private school. In a Turkish context it is highly likely that the students they taught had a higher level of competency compared to students at a state school. This might affect the code switching patterns, contingencies that might occur in the classroom, and the attitude of the supervisors. To what extent could these differences affect the patterns of code switching, interaction and therefore student teachers' cognitions and their influence on code switching?
- It would be interesting to study the approach of qualified teachers to code switching and its relation to their cognitions. It would also be possible to design a longitudinal study tracing the development of code switching practices and beliefs from the practicum into the first years of teaching.

- My findings could be used as a basis for a large-scale survey of the views of newly qualified teachers and/or student teachers in teaching practice. Further research on this topic could elaborate on these findings and offer ways to introduce code switching into the training curriculum.
- This research could be a basis for action research projects or interventionist case studies focusing on the relationship between the cognitions of student teachers and code switching in a pedagogical context. This could involve supervisors at practice schools, providing an opportunity to link teacher training programmes to supervisory support from the perspective of code switching.
- The findings of this study could be used to revise the contents of the Teaching Experience course, which is designed by the Higher Educational Council in Turkey. Code switching is not addressed in the formal package for the course at all and yet, the findings could still be useful for the lecturers who teach this course. It could help student teachers to recognise that code switching is a natural event in language classrooms and could provide them with a perspective about their own beliefs, expectations and identities. Publishing the findings of this study as a research article and establishing awareness about the need to address code switching in Turkish pre-service education context could make this need more visible for the stakeholders. These efforts could construct a basis for initiatives that could lead the way to

include code switching as a relevant topic to the Teaching Practice syllabus and to produce materials addressing code switching and how it affects student teacher cognitions and consequently identities in pre-service teacher education. I intend to follow up this study with the offer of a workshop on code switching on the Teaching Experience course as a first step in opening a dialogue on what might be done to facilitate its more permanent inclusion.

I started this thesis with a simple question in my mind which was only related to how to position code switching in EFL classrooms. In the end I discovered that what makes code switching worth investigating further is more than interchanging languages in the classroom. This project has revealed an important link between code switching and teacher beliefs more generally and I believe that this has opened up new avenues of investigation.

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8. APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Consent Form for Participating Student Teachers (Translation Provided)



CONSENT FORM

Project Title: The Effects and Purposes Of Code-switching on Interaction
between Students and Student Teachers

Name of Researcher: Sezen Seymen

I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet dated
for the above project which I may keep for my records and have had the opportunity to ask
any questions I may have.

I agree to take part in the above study and am willing to:

- be interviewed;
- have my interview audio-taped;
- be videotaped while teaching at the practice school.

I understand that my information will be held and processed for the following purposes:

- The data obtained for the research will be used only in Seymen's doctoral thesis,
reports and academic publications.
- No visual data (video recordings etc.) will be used in such outputs.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time
without giving any reason without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

_____ Name of Participant	_____ Date	_____ Signature
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_____ Researcher	_____ Date	_____ Signature
---------------------	---------------	--------------------

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England
Email: S.Seymen@warwick.ac.uk

APPENDIX 2: Consent Form for Participating Principal (Translation Provided)



CONSENT FORM

Project Title: The Effects and Purposes Of Code-switching on Interaction
between Students and Student Teachers

Name of Researcher: Sezen Seymen

I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet dated
for the above project which I may keep for my records and have had the opportunity to ask
any questions I may have.

I agree to take part in the above study and am willing to allow classes taught by participant
student teachers to be videotaped.

I understand that my information will be held and processed for the following purposes:

- The data obtained for the research will be used only in Seymen's doctoral thesis,
reports and academic publications.
- No visual data (video recordings etc.) will be used in such outputs.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time
without giving any reason without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

Name of Principal

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

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APPENDIX 3: Information Sheet for the Participating Student Teachers (Translation Provided)



Information Sheet for Participants

Project Title: The Effects and Purposes Of Code-switching on Interaction between Students and Student Teachers

Name of Researcher: Sezen Seymen

This project is a doctoral research project conducted by Sezen SEYMEN under the supervision of Dr. Keith Richards at the University of Warwick (UK).

One of the aims of the project is to explore the interaction patterns between students and student teachers in EFL classrooms with specific focus on code switching and its implications for the teacher education programme. For this purpose, lessons of the participant student teachers will be videotaped in order to monitor the natural classroom environment. Interviews will be conducted in order to obtain the reflections of the student teachers on their experiences while teaching with a specific focus on code switching. Stimulated recall interviews aim to provide solid basis for student teachers to discuss and reflect their opinions on code switching through their performance at practice schools. The interview with the tutor of the participant student teachers is designed to throw light on the place of code switching in teacher education programmes.

The data collection procedure will approximately last for 3 months during the spring term. Each student teacher is expected to teach at least once a week during the "School Experience" class and the researcher proposes to videotape each student teacher 3 times during the term. Towards the end of the term, the student teachers will be interviewed individually. Each interview is expected to last 1 hour at most. In addition to individual interviews, the stimulated recall interviews are expected to last at least 1.5 hour at most for each student teacher. The interviews will be conducted in Turkish (mother tongue).

The names of the participants will not be revealed to anyone and the results of the research will be used only for researcher's doctoral thesis, reports and presentations. No visual data (video recordings etc.) will be used in such outputs. All data will be securely stored and not shared with anyone except researcher's supervisors.

The researcher has contacted the head of English Language Teaching and the tutor of several student teachers in person and via email. The institution that student teachers are trained is where the researcher was working as a research assistant.

Each participant in the study will be able to have a copy of their lessons and transcriptions if they wish. They will also have the opportunity to take part in a research project which is designed to deepen our understanding of an important aspect of foreign language teaching.

Participation in the project is entirely voluntary and the participants are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

If you have any queries about the research, please feel free to contact me. If necessary, you may contact Dr. Keith Richards via the website of the Centre for Applied Linguistics.

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APPENDIX 4: Information Sheet for the Principal (Translation Provided)



Information Sheet for Principal

Project Title: The Effects and Purposes Of Code-switching on Interaction between Students and Student Teachers
Name of Researcher: Sezen Seymen

This project is a doctoral research project conducted by Sezen SEYMEN under the supervision of Dr. Keith Richards at the University of Warwick (UK).

The aims of the project include exploring the interaction patterns between students and student teachers in EFL classrooms with a specific focus on code switching and its implications for the teacher education programme. For this purpose, lessons of participant student teachers will be videotaped in order to obtain data from the natural classroom environment. The data collection procedure will last for approximately 3 months during the spring term. Each student teacher is expected to teach at least once a week during the "Teaching Experience" class. The researcher intends to videotape each student teacher 3 times during the term.

The names of the participants will not be revealed to anyone and the results of the research will be used only for researcher's doctoral thesis, reports and presentations. No visual data (video recordings etc.) will be used in such outputs. All data will be securely stored and not shared with anyone except researcher's supervisors. If any participants feel uncomfortable, they will be allowed to move out of camera range. If there are any parents who do not want their child to appear on camera, the faces of those pupils will not be taped. The cameras will stand at the back of the classroom in order not to distract the attention of the pupils.

The researcher has contacted to the Head of English Language Teaching Department and the tutor of several student teachers in person and via email. The institution where student teachers are trained is where the researcher used to work as a research assistant.

By taking part in this study, the practice school will have the the opportunity to take part in a research project which is designed to deepen our understanding of an important aspect of foreign language teaching.

The participation is voluntary and the participants are free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

If you have any queries about the research, please feel free to contact me. If necessary, you may contact Dr. Keith Richards via the website of the Centre for Applied Linguistics.

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APPENDIX 5: Sample Individual Interview Transcription and Initial Themes

Line	Data Extract	Themes
19 37 54 75-93	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • in the beginning of the practice there were times I said these things we are supposed to do are very artificial. • These things were about being teaching process' being more authentic...When I started implementing those, it started to be more realistic because I began to understand students. • At first everything felt very silly, artificial; everything I did at university did not work at school. • I feel myself some kind of a reading expert. We had prepared lots of reading activities at university...lesson plans, before reading, after reading questions. We were taught how to deal with it. But it all makes sense and becomes useful after one uses these and says it actually works. 	Authenticity-naturalness of the lesson
26 148 196 215	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • But there were couple of things our tutor told us, important things. • But later it became much easier after our supervising teacher gave us full freedom about the things we were supposed to do in class • After our supervisor gave us space we felt much better. She gave us some advice most of the time like; if you do this and that it would be better type of thing. However, these things were mostly the things she wanted. She had her way of teaching reading and vocabulary but I did not want to teach like her. In general I did not want to do the way she 	Relationship with authority (Tutor-supervisor- student teacher's own Identity)

68	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> wanted me to. 	
285	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Because of our tutor in a way. I mean he told us to do the right thing in class. In a way it is a very strong stand but he said you are not responsible to her (supervisor) but to me. You are supposed to do the right thing in class, the ideal thing. After we had more space in class, our supervisor did not show up for a while. .You started coming along and I think she felt more comfortable, maybe thinking there is an observant in class. You also did not intervene in the way I thought anyway. So I started to do whatever I wanted to. I chose the topics myself. 	
523		
545	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It absolutely went better with time. I said to myself when I start teaching at a school most of the things will be right in its place. 	
677	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> He said these students are private school students. They must have done plenty and exposed to language well enough. Make them read text fast and ask questions right after. Make them speak a lot and allow them to make deductions with comprehension questions. Misses Belgin told us to read the text out loud and then let students read again silently. It did not sound enjoyable to me. I think reading again and again is boring. 	
734	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> It's like shifting from a second language situation to foreign language situation. Then one starts understanding more and more. Having said that, teachers might feel the need to use a bit of Turkish at classes. They must use Turkish. But I 	

801	a language class. She does not use English at language class. She uses English more at 9th class. I was absolutely surprised because there are more exercises in coursework.	
824	Lots of detailed questions, reading comprehension questions.	
843	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> You know they (course books) direct you a lot. I can say she was really good at it or it is because of her experience. It might be very ordinary for her or maybe it's because I'm not as good as she is. For example, when she would ask a lot of follow up questions out of one question she had in the book. Students were, of course, a bit reluctant in the beginning. But afterwards at 9th class, some students come to the fore. She started with those students. In 9th class, the amount of English usage was high due to the existence of course book. However in 10th class, course book does not exist, all they do is grammar. They just want to cover all grammar topics – whatever that serves I don't know In the exam, there are lots of reading passages which are the most difficult section according to plenty of people. I don't know how they will manage that. In 10th class she used more Turkish and in 9th she used more English. 	
37 47 54 385	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> When I started implementing those, it started to be more realistic because I began to understand students. Then I recognized students started to understand me. At first everything felt very silly, artificial; everything I did at university did not work at 	Teaching as a learning process

<p>401</p> <p>615-624</p>	<p>school.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Then when I use labelling, students do not get it in different occasions...I remember teaching adverbs of manner and adverbs of time ((She refers to adverbial clauses of manner and time here)). In both cases, I can frankly tell you, before teaching these, when our supervisor teacher told me to teach them, I did not have the faintest idea what they were all about. Seriously. • After thinking to myself, I do not remember such a thing, what the heck it is all about, I referred to a grammar book right away. I came across to as if/as though in manner section. I thought to myself, oh that? I mean, when she said adverbs of manner, I did not know it was labelled such even after my 4 years in ELT department. • I always detect some words before teaching reading. In case they ask me some words, in case of the slimmest case. For example I did not write down journey thinking they must already know what it means. However, I also observed some cases in which they actually know some words I thought they would not. Actually I do not have a precise thought on that. But as said, I remember they did not know some very simple words. 	
<p>487</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ok, so if I went to England to learn English, then it would be my second language. As it is foreign language here, exposure to language is limited. As the exposure is limited, students have difficulty in understanding. I can sincerely say that I could 	<p>Effect of teacher's own language learning experiences.</p>

401	<p>understand very little when I first started studying in this department. Yes, I was listening a lot; I was trying to get exposed as much as I could. I could not understand videos or songs but I persistently kept on listening</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • After thinking to myself, I do not remember such a thing, what the heck it is all about, I referred to a grammar book right away. I came across to as if/as though in manner section. I thought to myself, oh that? I mean, when she said adverbs of manner, I did not know it was labelled such even after my 4 years in ELT department. • English is taught at state schools but after graduation when these kids apply for a job or something everything goes upside down. It gets stuck in a way. Education has inputs, processes and outputs. A student receives English input, and leaves the school as if she/he had never had process along the way while learning English. 	
351	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The lessons I used (Turkish) most are probably grammar lessons. Because at grammar lessons our tutor told us not to use labelling. Because we are providing structures at these lessons, this is this and that, so on. Especially then one feels the need to use Turkish for some reason. It actually happens that way. Especially while addressing to subject, object and so on. These are all labelling. • Then when I use labelling, students do not get it in different occasions...I remember teaching adverbs of manner and adverbs of time 	Strategies and reasons for/against code switching
385		
419		

430	((She refers to adverbial clauses of manner and time	
440	here)). In both cases, I can	
487	frankly tell you, before	
	teaching these, when our	
	supervisor teacher told me to	
	teach them, I did not have the	
	faintest idea what they were all	
	about. Seriously.	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I can frankly say I use Turkish most while teaching grammar. Other times I taught reading for most of the time. While teaching reading, I suppose I used Turkish while teaching vocabulary. 	
583		
605	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As for vocabulary, I always had English equivalents and meaning to make it easier to explain to students 	
677	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sometimes I felt the need to use Turkish directly in order to save time actually. I think this is the underlying reason. 	
696	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ok, so if I went to England to learn English, then it would be my second language. As it is foreign language here, exposure to language is limited. As the exposure is limited, students have difficulty in understanding. I can sincerely say that I could understand very little when I first started studying in this department. Yes, I was listening a lot; I was trying to get exposed as much as I could. I could not understand videos or songs but I persistently kept on listening • (upon being asked meaning of particular vocabulary) Yes, I was shocked and thought how it is possible? Because for example/for instance are taught together in conjunctives. • I was surprised. But another thing is that sometimes they 	

	<p>actually know some words that I think they probably don't know. Sometimes that amazed me too.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They (other lecturers at the university) gave some ideas. Frankly I don't remember anyone urging not to use Turkish in class. I guess everyone is aware of this, I mean it is a necessity. • Apart from that, yes it should be used but first choice should always be English and this persistence, I mean persistence of speaking English should never be dropped. Plus our tutor also likes this. I mean novice teachers are not very good at paraphrasing. With time, a teacher can learn how to describe something according to the level of students by simplifying the language. That was what our tutor said basically. 	
910	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • English is taught at state schools but after graduation when these kids apply for a job or something everything goes upside down. It gets stuck in a way. Education has inputs, processes and outputs. A student receives English input, and leaves the school as if she/he had never had process along the way while learning English. 	Governmental policies on English teaching
932	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • That's why government must have thought this to be as a failure. And yes, it's true, it's a failure. They thought of reasons for this. OK let's go back to the start. Let's reconstruct English teaching again, but what should we do? What is missing? These students can't communicate in English. Their grammar is OK but they can't speak. OK, that 	
950		

	<p>is the problem, we also say this. English for communication, English for communication. So it seems our teachers fail to achieve that.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • So who can do this? Teachers from foreign countries. Let's bring teachers from these countries. The easiest solution. Yes it would help, why wouldn't it? But it is vain because this is related to the economy. Instead of this heavy burden this might bring on budget, a development plan for English teaching would be successful if it is implemented strictly. I believe in strictness in this matter and if this progress plan is taken seriously, why not? Or the curriculum of English teaching department could be innovated or guest lecturers could teach at our faculties. Guest lecturers could teach speaking to prospective teachers. I believe it could be much affordable. I mean why would my taxes be spent on something vain if there are more economical solutions? Yes having foreign teachers would help but more permanent solutions are what we need. 	
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**APPENDIX 6: Sample Stimulated Recall Interview Transcription with
Actual Classroom Extract and with Relevant Themes**

Number of Comment/Lesson	Discussion of event	Actual Classroom Transcript	Theme
1/1	R: Look for instance here-	T5: Ok, first of all, I have some questions. The first question was do you tell lies? And the second question is, do you believe that telling lies is necessary?	Relation to Authority
2/1	T: Yes, I go like 'that is the first question' right away! R: Yes, it seems to me you have a strict plan and use the exact words in your plan as you mentioned, phrases like 'OK the first question' T: But you know, our tutor always told us to write down everything. You know, even the instructions. For instance, he told me I used 'pass' in a wrong context. If I wrote it down not to use it that way, I would have used another word instead.	S1: I don't believe it. T5: You don't believe it. You? S5: Me too. T5: Ok. You? S4: No response	
3/2	R: Why do you think you switched here? Well, it seems students did not ask you anything at that point. T: Yes, I remember this. There was confusion about frequency adverbs. There was a slight difference in the meaning of the	T5: Ok, tenth line, ok let's check it. Eee giving false excuses sometimes sometimes people hide because they don't want to do something. Ok? Eee orada sometimes olduğu için bazı zamanlar yapıyormuş, o yüzden common bir habit ok? [As there is 'sometimes' there, it means one does it occasionally, therefore counts as a common habit, ok?] the second question? Ayça? S2: true T5: Yes it's true. Do you all agree? S1: yes	

	<p>adverb. I can't name it now clearly but I remember students having confusion if it was usually, generally or always. After that even supervisor warned me about it. She said students were confused because I had not made the differences between these adverbs clear. Right after, I had the same word in matching exercise. I had prepared matching questions for words. So as I could not make meaning clear, I needed Turkish to explain the nuances between words. You know, in English some words sound like having the same meaning, but they are all used in different contexts. That's why I needed to switch.</p> <p>R: Here I thought you would write as if / as though on board right away. T: No I wrote this because, I wrote Adverbial Clauses of Manner, because I saw my supervisor teacher writing like this at previous lesson. I mean she wrote the title exactly like this. R: For what purpose</p>	<p>T5: No, ok. Let's start then. Actually it is</p> <p><i>Starts writing Adverbial Clauses of Manner on the board.</i></p> <p>T5: These two are same. OK? Same. Eee ((clears her throat)) We use as if and as though eee while we are talking about the eee real situations and unreal situations and probable ones ok? Means eee sanki, -miş gibi [as if, so to say]ok? Let's start with examples. First real examples, real situations.</p>	
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	<p>do you think?</p> <p>T: It is pointless actually. I didn't like it at the time either.</p> <p>R: OK from what you told me about your way of teaching, I would imagine you would cover as if as though first and after that you would give it a label like adverbial clauses of manner.</p> <p>T: Yes, that would be the case. To be honest, I was not taught this way either.</p> <p>R: Uhum.</p> <p>T: I learned this as as if/ as though. I was surprised to see this with this label in grammar book as well.</p> <p>T: There you see. These are horrible. It does not make sense even to me at all.</p> <p>R: Yes, you say – miş gibi [as if] to be clearer. I wonder the reason you said this, if it makes sense to students.</p> <p>T: Well, I don't know. It's a complete cloudy, blurry area for me to see.</p>		
4/1	Because in this class's case, they mostly do a grammar unit and grammar exercises	<p>T5: Ok you're right, thank you. Aaahh do you agree that reasons? OK, all the reasons</p> <p>S1: yes it is not different.</p>	Views of Students

5/1	<p>following the lesson- stuff like filling in the blanks, or multiple choice exercises, sometimes even translation. That's why this was a bit strange for them- well maybe not strange but different.</p> <p>R: Here you see, student could not understand according to what he should answer the question. T: Problem. A very big problem. R: What is the reason for this problem do you think? T: I think he liked the question (chuckles) and wanted to answer the way he wanted to. Students tend to do this sometimes, and I cannot understand the reason for this.</p>	<p>T5: OK Melis [student's name] S5: (Nods) T5: Melis..Gamze [another student's name] ok.</p> <p>S4: B mi? [Is it section B?] T5: yes B. Eee which line..OK which line fourth, fourth line. S1: But bad news is what we care so.. T5: but we answer these questions according to the passage. OK? You don't have to comment on it. S1: Pfff T5: Just look at the passage and answer it.</p>	
6/1	<p>R: I see. That's very interesting. Did you sometimes get the feeling 'what if they don't understand the question I'm asking them?'</p> <p>T: Exactly, that was my feeling especially in the beginning. I was like 'they just don't</p>	<p>T5: Ok you're right, thank you. Aaahh do you agree that reasons? OK, all the reasons S1: yes it is not different. T5: OK Melis [student's name] S5: (Nods) T5: Melis..Gamze [another student's name] ok.</p>	Affective Dimension of Student Teacher

7/1	<p>get what I mean at all'. That's why I always thought I was horrible whole lesson. Only thing we said to each other with Dilara (her teaching mate) after lessons was that they did not understand us, they don't even like us...etc. We were discussing if we were talking too fast or asking very hard questions.</p> <p>R: Why so?</p> <p>T: I think it was because, as I said before, students were not familiar with the way I was trying to teach them or maybe they haven't been doing things the way I did in class for a long time.</p>	<p>T5: but we answer these questions according to the passage. OK? You don't have to comment on it.</p> <p>S1: Pfff</p> <p>T5: Just look at the passage and answer it. People sometimes hide bad news because they don't want to eeerrmm ok bad news, bad news himm yes ee the line 16, 17, the line 17, look at the 17th, line 17. Did you all find? Lying to hide bad news: There are, there are times we don't want to tell someone bad news. For example, you've just had a very bad day at work but you don't want to talk about it. OK? You don't want to talk about it. Onun hakkında konuşmak istemediğiniz için belli bir süre vermiyorsunuz, anladınız mı? [As you don't want to talk about it, you don't give time to it, do you understand?] Is there a problem? Ha ha the second question. Which of the following is not mentioned in the text? Gamze?</p>	
8/1			
9/2	<p>R: Do you think you have some kind of frustration here?</p> <p>T: Absolutely. My body language also shows this. I look like enough is enough; I'm going to say it in Turkish. I even put my hand on my waist, which is an indication of being upset and frustrated. It also shows from my tone of voice.</p>	<p>T5: Yes, you're right C. People lie when they don't want to hear bad news. Errm diğer seçenekleri bulmamıza gerek var mı? Hepiniz anladınız mı? [Do we need to</p>	

10/3	T: God, here I'm really upset. I ask if they understood or not and do I need to explain other options in Turkish.	<p>find the other options as well? Have you all understood?] Ok the third question. Tolga?</p> <p>T5: No, ok. Let's start then. Actually it is</p> <p><i>Starts writing Adverbial Clauses of Manner on the board.</i></p> <p>T5: These two are same. OK? Same. Eee ((clears her throat)) We use as if and as though eee while we are talking about the eee real situations and unreal situations and probable ones ok? Means eee sanki, -miş gibi [as if, so to say]ok? Let's start with examples. First real examples, real situations.</p>	
11/4	<p>R: Did you have any written guidelines during lesson?</p> <p>T: No, I don't remember for this particular moment. But I have to say, I had the same feeling with this video and the one before. I am not happy teaching grammar at all. For some reason, when we say "covering a subject" first thing that comes into our minds is to teach grammar. However, I still don't like and want to teach grammar. I really don't. I think there is a reason coming from my own situation as well.</p>	<p>T5: Do the part A. It's about vocabulary. And you have two minutes. If you get difficulty in finding the right answers, you can refer to the passage. ((Sees a student having trouble)) find the words in italics and then refer to the passage. Came to the line in the passage, permanent for example and try to understand from the context.</p>	

	<p>have felt like I took the easy path-not trying hard, not pushing both myself and students.</p> <p>T: See they give more accurate answers in time and I'm not as frustrated as I used to be. I'm less dependent on my notes.</p> <p>R: Yes these are all eminent changes.</p> <p>T: Another thing, in this lesson I make less grammar mistakes, probably due to my calmness.</p>		
<p>12/1</p> <p>13/1</p>	<p>T: Yes, I don't know, it's just sometimes I don't wait for students to think over the question. Especially for the line-reference exercises, maybe I could have displayed an example and ask them to follow the same procedure.</p> <p>This is actually what our tutor told us all the time. For instance there could be an exercise number 0 – this can be the example I answer. The one, two, three would follow.</p>	<p>T5: The second is true? OK. People frequently lie because they want to keep something a secret – something a secret. How can we prove – prove it? Eeeh look at the fifth line ok? People usually – usually is the same meaning frequently ok usually frequently lie. And the third question? Zeynep?</p> <p>S3: true</p> <p>T5: fifth, you mean fifth?</p> <p>S5: Yes, to hide something.</p> <p>T5: Not fifth. Eeem sixth line. Altıncı satır [sixth line] Let's read it again ok</p>	Critical Reflection

14/1	R: Well, as you said, I also think they could not understand the reference line issue. What do you think you could do to make it more clear to them?	S4: B mi? [Is it section B?] T5: yes B. Eee which line..OK which line fourth, fourth line. S1: But bad news is what we care so.. T5: but we answer these questions according to the passage. OK? You don't have to comment on it. S1: Pfff T5: Just look at the passage and answer it.	
15/2	T: Maybe not in this lesson but in the following lessons, I could- funny, at some lesson, I remember asking them 'do you understand the line issue' at some point. Then I explained the line issue, I think I could have explained this at first lesson, when it first came up. R: Would you do it in English again? T: Yes, I would do it in English. Here I tried to explain anyway but now it occurs to me I'm not really addressing to what they actually don't understand.	T5: No, ok. Let's start then. Actually it is <i>Starts writing Adverbial Clauses of Manner on the board.</i> T5: These two are same. OK? Same. Eee ((clears her throat)) We use as if and as though eee while we are talking about the eee real situations and unreal situations and probable ones ok? Means eee sanki, -miş gibi [as if, so to say]ok? Let's start with examples. First real examples, real situations.	
16/2			
17/2	But it's an obvious fact that all questions are about the passage, I mean they should be answered according to the passage. I think I should have given instruction, but it is rather strange that students	T5: ok. Eem. There is a smell in the room. I think someone has been cooking. Ok. There is a smell in the room. I think - there is someone has been cooking. I just predict, I just think. I don't know someone has been cooking or	

18/2	can't figure this out themselves. Still this is quite harsh – I mean I say 'don't comment, just answer it'.	not, ok? And we change these sentences we will connect with as if-as though. Errm. It smells as if or as though someone has been cooking. Ok. It smells as if or as though someone has been cooking. Sanki biri yemek pişiriyormuş gibi kokuyor [It smells as if someone has been cooking]ok? Is it clear? <i>No response</i>	
19/2	R: I suppose the reason why you say it to make it clearer. It seems to me, and as you can see you turn around right after you say this to students and go on with the next thing on your plan. T: Well I had a plan yes, and I am aware that I do and tell things to keep up with my plan or things I have in my mind.	S3: Bir şey sorabilir miyim? [May I ask you something?] T5: <i>Turns around</i> OK S3: Şimdi bir önceki cümlede [Now, in the previous sentence] <i>((A student coughs loudly))</i> T5: Which one, sorry? S3: Bir önceki örnekte Martin comment on it haa pardon o yukardaki ile aşağıdaki farklı [the previous example goes like Martin comment on it aha sorry the sentence before that one is different]	
20/3			
21/4	R: Yes, you say in the title real situation and it smells of cooking, but your explanation is different. Hence, a student asks you about this. T: Yes, I see. I was not aware of it during my explanation. Yet it was difficult for me as well. Especially during last exercise, I constantly thought what kind of an exercise I should	T5: Şimdi unreal situationsa geçiyoruz [Now we move on with the unreal situations] For unreal situations. Here, you know, the situation is not real, ok, just comment on it.	
22/4		T5: OK, eee she looked shocked as if or as though, bir pastını alıyoruz şunun, [we use the past	

	<p>T: Yes, I should have done that before, this is a bit late. R: I agree.</p> <p>T: Finally! I go ‘do you understand the line issue?’ I wonder if they got it this time. I could have stated this in Turkish once.</p> <p>R: The way I see it here, when you give students more time to think over a question, they tend to respond you more. T: Yes, I think I learned it in time. I don’t give examples myself right away.</p> <p>T: See they give more accurate answers in time and I’m not as frustrated as I used to be. I’m less dependent on my notes. R: Yes these are all eminent changes. T: Another thing, in this lesson I make less grammar</p>	<p>any questions? And do part C. Have you finished? OK. Let’s start. Er, the first question. Frantic probably means? S1 and S2: Worried.</p> <p>T5: But they are different, ok. Melis? Do you remember? S4: I don’t understand. T5: Think of-</p> <p>T5: How we find, how we find the reference. Ok we’re looking at the backward or forward line ok? For example fourth line we learn our looks-we are not born with our looks, isn’t it?</p>	
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	<p>mistakes, probably due to my calmness.</p> <p>T: The fact that she did not understand could not be expressed with a better body language.</p> <p>R: You could have used this.</p> <p>T: I did not recognize during lesson, I see this way just now.</p> <p>T: Oh dear, I'm still struggling with reference. I see it is a huge problem for me. From now on I will try to improve my skills on this. I will explain it plain Turkish, what refers to what. Yes, it is very obvious that I still could not teach reference at the end of five lessons. I now conclude I don't have to explain it in English. Same goes for the line issue. This is also a reading technique, when students learn how to use it, they can copy this skill to other texts.</p>		
25/1	T: Here I explain collocations in	T5:And the part C. But before we start, I'll tell some eee	Explicit Strategy for

26/2	Turkish. That's because it's a label, labelling. I was almost sure they never heard it before.	collocations, do you know collocations? S1: No. T5: Eee genellikle bazı fiilleri bazı isimlerle beraber kullanıyoruz, [we use some verbs together with particulat nouns] have a breakfast, go shopping, and there are some collocations about tell, ok? Eee can you tell me other examples? Tell a lie, tell a story,	Code Switching
27/2	R: Why did you switch into Turkish here? T: It is completely to make translation- to emphasize meaning of –mış gibi [as if].	It smells as if or as though someone has been cooking. Ok. It smells as if or as though someone has been cooking. Sanki biri yemek pişiriyormuş gibi kokuyor [It smells as if someone has been cooking] ok? Is it clear? <i>No response</i>	
28/3	T: Here I switched to make explanation. Otherwise, I felt like it does not make sense at all for them. T: Here I switch just for translation.	S3: <i>points to the example on the board</i> Öznenen sonra were kullanıyorduk ya - <i>[you see we used 'were' after the subject there]</i> T5: Hıhı S3: onla bu bir pastını kullandıklarımız arasında ne fark var? [what's the difference between that one and the ones with past perfect] T5: <i>points to the board</i> İkisi de aynı burada da past kullanıyorsun aslında. Present, present simple'ın bir pastı ne? [They are both the same. Actually you use the past version of all tenses. What is the past version of present simple?] S3: past. T5: Hıhı, yes. In	

		which line again in passage? Damage which lasts for. Last for sürmek demek. [Means last for]. Sürmek uzun sure [lasts for a long time]. Lasts for a very long time. OK?	
29/1	T: Yes, they might have done similar activities in reading when they were at ninth grade because they had had course books at the time. But here, I believe dwelling on grammar most of the time, reduces attendance to these kind of activities.		Necessary Linguistic Resource
30/1	R: Why did you switch into Turkish here? T: Here a student asked what common habits meant- and I did not have it in- well, as I did not think they would ask me the meaning of habit. I thought it was a very commonly known word. At the time, I could not figure how to describe it in English. For a short while I thought, how can I explain this in English? Maybe I could use 'used to' to make it more clear- this came to my mind only now by the way. At the time, nothing came to my mind on how I	T5: Mark the statements as true or false. You have one minute. If you have any words that you don't know the meaning, tell me please. S1: common habits T5: common habits. Ahh devamlı yaptığımız şeyler, alışkanlıklar [things that we do all the time, habits]	
31/1		T5: Ok, tenth line, ok let's check it. Eee giving false excuses sometimes sometimes people hide because they don't want to do something. Ok? Eee orada sometimes olduğu için bazı zamanlar yapıyormuş, o yüzden common bir habit ok?	

32/2	could elaborate on this word. But in the following lessons, I took notes on words that students might not know; I mean every single word that I thought they could ask me.	[As there is 'sometimes' there, it means one does it occasionally, therefore counts as a common habit, ok?] the second question? Ayça? S2: true T5: Yes it's true. Do you all agree? S1: yes	
33/2	R: Yes, I observed that too. It might be hard without taking previous notes about words. T: Yes, it's hard, very hard to come up with an explanation out of the blue.	T5 Ok you're right, well done. Bir de burda şöyle bir durum var. Unreal situationslarda eeee as if as thoughdan sonraki bölümde -- gerçek durumun fiilinin, gerçek durumumuzun fiili neydi? am not yani present. Onun bir pastını alıyoruz. Anlaşıldı mı? Şimdi diğer örneklerde daha iyi anlayacağız [There is a special situation here. In unreal situations, in part of the sentence following as if as though - what is the verb of our real situation? Am not, which is present. We take its past form here. Understood? You'll get better in following examples]	
33/3	So as I could not make meaning clear, I needed Turkish to explain the nuances between words. You know, in English some words sound like having the same meaning, but they are all used in different contexts. That's why I needed to switch. T: Here I felt the need to use Turkish again because it is very hard to clarify this. I don't know how to address to using past participle	T5: Although, you know although, e rağmen [although], although I slept at all last night, I feel tired now. Ok. Let's change the sentence. I feel tired now as if, şimdi bu yani gerçek manada yazılmış tensein, gerçek cümlede, bir pastını alıyoruz. Past simple'in bir	

	<p>form of a verb in English. That's why I directly used Turkish.</p> <p>T: Here, again same reasons. I just start explaining in Turkish thinking it would not be clear enough for them.</p> <p>T: Here I tried to involve Zeynep into lesson by asking the meaning of reduce. She is so out of context that she thinks she has to refer to the text. Then I had to say it in Turkish.</p>	<p>pastı ne? [now, what I mean is, we take the past form of the actual, real tense in the other sentence. What is the more past version of past simple?]</p> <p>T5: What about reduce? Is there anyone know reduce? Do we know reduce? Zeynep? Do you know, Just I'm saying, asking for the meaning of the reduce. You don't have to look at the passage. Ayça?</p> <p>((no answer))</p> <p>T5: OK reduce means errm ((mimics down)) düşürmek [reduce]</p>	
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**APPENDIX: 7 Sample Transcription of ST1's Second Teaching Session –
08.04.2011**

001	T5: Ok... How are you?	
002	Sts: Fine thanks	
003	<i>Walks towards S1</i>	
004	T5: Zeynep, you seem a little bit hurt as if	
005	you haven't sleep.	
006	S1 Yes	
007	T5: Hamm aha. OK. Gamze?	
008	S2: Fine	
009	T5: Ok, Tolga?	
010	S3: Fine thank you.	
011	T5: Thank you.	
012	<i>Walks towards the board</i>	
013	T5: Errm today our topic is as if-as though.	
014	You know? Have you ever came-come across?	
015	As if as though?	
016	S3: No.	
017	T5: No, ok. Let's start then. Actually it is	
018	<i>Starts writing Adverbial Clauses</i>	
019	<i>of Manner on the board.</i>	
020	T5: While I'm writing you can note down.	
021	<i>Writes as if-as though</i>	
022	T5: These two are same. OK? Same. Eee ((clears	
023	her throat)) We use as if and as though	
024	eee while we are talking about the eee	
025	real situations and unreal situations and	
026	probable ones ok? Means eee sanki, -mış	
027	gibi [as if, so to say]ok? Let's start	
028	with examples. First real examples, real	
029	situations.	
030	<i>Writes 'for real situations' and</i>	
031	<i>examples on the board while uttering the</i>	
032	<i>examples at the same time.</i>	
033	T5: ok. Eeem. There is a smell in the room. I	
034	think someone has been cooking. Ok. There	
035	is a smell in the room. I think - there is	
036	someone has been cooking. I just predict,	
037	I just think. I don't know someone has	
038	been cooking or not, ok? And we change	
039	these sentences we will connect with as	
040	if-as though. Errm. It smells as if or as	
041	though someone has been cooking. Ok. It	
042	smells as if or as though someone has	
043	been cooking. Sanki biri yemek	
044	pişiriyormuş gibi kokuyor [It smells as if	
045	someone has been cooking]ok? Is it clear?	
046	<i>No response</i>	
047	T5: Tolga? Hıhım. Let's pass to another	
048	example. Ok. Errm. Ok. Martin comments	
049	on a situation, I predict he knows it	
050	completely. Ok let's change it together.	
051	Tell me the sentence, if it's possible.	
052	Gamze?	
053	S2: Eee Martin comments	
054	T5: Hıhı	
055	S2: as if he knows it completely.	
056	T5: OK. They are all real situations OK? They	
057	are talking about the present.	
058	<i>Teachers writes another</i>	
059	<i>example on the board</i>	
060	T5: OK, let's try. Ayça?	
061	S4: Jane looks and sounds ill erm as if	
062	T5: right as though	
063	S4: she has a cold	
064		

065	T5: Hıhı OK. Do you know has a cold?	
066	S3: Üşütmek. [catch a cold]	
067	T5: Hı hı, do you know I am cold?	
068	S3: Üşüdüm [I'm cold]	
069	T5: Ok. You know. Congrats ((Chuckles))	
070	Another example.	
071	S3: Bir şey sorabilir miyim? [May I ask you something?]	
072		
073	T5: <i>Turns around</i> OK	
074	S3: Şimdi bir önceki cümlede [Now, in the previous sentence]	
075		
076	((A student coughs loudly))	
077	T5: Which one, sorry?	
078	S3: Bir önceki örnekte Martin comment on it	
079	haa pardon o yukardaki ile aşağıdaki	
080	farklı [the previous example goes like	
081	Martin comment on it aha sorry the	
082	sentence before that one is different]	
083	T5: Ah, ok. <i>Starts writing another example</i>	
084	Ok. Any volunteer? Gamze? Ayça? Ayça?	
085	S4: They are not friends as if/as though they	
086	T5: no	
087	wait this is just an explanation ok?	
088	S4: They behave as if/as though they know each	
089	other.	
090	T5: Eee we depend on that explanation and we	
091	change these sentence. They are not	
092	friends but they behave as if--	
093	S4: they aren't.	
094	T5: Ok. Are you... all right?	
095	T5: <i>starts writing frequently used verbs with</i>	
096	<i>as if/as though</i>	
097	T5: note these verbs to your -on your	
098	notebooks please because as if/as though	
099	frequently used with act appear, be,	
100	behave, feel, look, seem, smell, sound,	
101	taste. Ok, can I clean the board, this	
102	part?	
103	((No opposition))	
104	T5: Şimdi unreal situationsa geçiyoruz [Now we	
105	move on with the unreal situations] For	
106	unreal situations. Here, you know, the	
107	situation is not real, ok, just comment on	
108	it.	
109	T5: <i>starts writing an example for the unreal</i>	
110	<i>situation</i>	
111	S3: ((turns to supervisor teacher who is	
112	present in classroom, sitting at the back	
113	of the class)) Behave ne demek? [what does	
114	act mean?]	
115	T5: <i>turns around</i>	
116	ST: act, act.	
117	T5: OK, here's sentence. I'm not their real	
118	daughter, you know this, ok, but they	
119	behave, they means their parents, behave	
120	as if or though I were their real	
121	daughter. Here's a some special situation,	
122	verb. When we eee are talking about unreal	
123	situations, ok, and when we use the verb	
124	to be after as if and as though eee we use	
125	were for all subjects. He were, she were,	
126	I were, you were, ok? Let's try with	
127	another example. He is not my boyfriend	
128	but he acts, <i>turns around to the class</i>	
129	he acts - go on the	
130	sentence - he acts as if, Gamze? He acts	
131	S2: Errm he,	
132	T5: as if	

133	S2: ermm was	
134	T5: or were	
135	S2: my boyfriend.	
136	T5: Ok you're right, well done. Bir de burda	
137	şöyle bir durum var. Unreal	
138	situationslarda eeee as if as thoughdan	
139	sonraki bölümde -- gerçek durumun	
140	fiilinin, gerçek durumumuzun fiili neydi?	
141	am not yani present. Onun bir pastını	
142	alıyoruz. Anlaşıldı mı? Şimdi diğer	
143	örneklerde daha iyi anlayacağız [There is	
144	a special situation here. In unreal	
145	situations, in part of the sentence	
146	following as if as though - what is the	
147	verb of our real situation? Am not, which	
148	is present. We take its past form here.	
149	Understood? You'll get better in following	
150	examples]	
151	T5: Although, you know although, e rağmen	
152	[although], although I slept at all last	
153	night, I feel tired now. Ok. Let's change	
154	the sentence. I feel tired now as if,	
155	şimdi bu yani gerçek manada yazılmış	
156	tensein, gerçek cümlede, bir pastını	
157	alıyoruz. Past simple'in bir pastı ne?	
158	[now, what I mean is, we take the past	
159	form of the actual, real tense in the	
160	other sentence. What is the more past	
161	version of past simple?]	
162	S4: Past perfect?	
163	T5: Yes, you're right. Uyumuş, ama şu an	
164	yorgun hissediyormuş, neden? Çünkü	
165	uyumamış gibi hissediyor ve bunu olumsuz	
166	yapıyoruz [She slept but she feels tired	
167	now, why? Because she feels as if she had	
168	not slept and we make this sentence in	
169	negative form]I feel tired now as if, as	
170	if, I hadn't slept at all last night. Is	
171	it clear? Gamze, Ayça, Zeynep? Hıhım.	
172	((Students probably nod their heads, not	
173	visible from the camera angle))	
174	T5: Ok, let's try it together. Although I, no	
175	not I, it is she. Although she didn't see	
176	a ghost, she looked shocked. Let's try	
177	together, The sentence begins with she	
178	looked shocked. Tolga?	
179	S3: She looked shocked	
180	T5: shocked, ha ha, as if	
181	S3: as if she hadn't seen	
182	T5: No. Görmemiş gibi mi, görmemiş şok oldu.	
183	Görmüş gibi.[Is is as if she hadn't seen,	
184	shocked or as if she had seen] Actually	
185	she hadn't had	
186	S3: sshe	
187	T5: Hıhı	
188	S3: She looked shocked	
189	T5: shocked	
190	S3: as if she had seen ne o [what is it]	
191	T5: a ghost.	
192	T5: a ghost. You know ghost?	
193	S3: Yes ((chuckles))	
194		
195	T5: OK, eee she looked shocked as if or as	
196	though, bir pastını alıyoruz şunun,[we use	
197	the past perfect version of this-	
198	<u>underlining didn't</u>] and focus on the	
199	meaning ok? Focus on the meaning. If you	
200	understand the meaning, you can form the	

201	sentence. Ok. Another sentence. I have	
202	eaten a	
203	S3: Were kullandıklarımızla were'ün bir	
204	pastını kullandıklarımız arasında ne fark	
205	vardı? [What's the difference between the	
206	examples in which we used 'were' and a	
207	past perfect	
208	T5: Sorry, which question?	
209	S3: <i>points to the example on the board</i>	
210	Özmeden sonra were kullanıyorduk ya -	
211	<i>[you see we used 'were' after the subject</i>	
212	<i>there]</i>	
213	T5: Hıhı	
214	S3: onla bu bir pastını kullandıklarımız	
215	arasında ne fark var? [what's the	
216	difference between that one and the ones	
217	with past perfect]	
218	T5: <i>points to the board</i>	
219	İkisi de aynı burada da past kullanıyorsun	
220	aslında. Present, present simple'in bir	
221	pastı ne? [They are both the same.	
222	Actually you use the past version of all	
223	tenses. What is the past version of	
224	present simple?]	
225	S3: past.	
226	T5: Past simple, past simple ok. You're	
227	talking about the past. Past tense. While	
228	we're talking about past simple, onun bir	
229	past formu da past perfect. [we use past	
230	tense's past, which is past perfect]. Aynı	
231	şey, aynı işlemleri yapıyoruz aslında. Ok?	
232	Sadece structure değişiyor bir pastını	
233	alarak çünkü we're talking about unreal	
234	situations. Ok? We know the real situation	
235	and we plant on it. [The same thing,	
236	actually we are making use of the	
237	same procedure. OK? Only the structure	
238	changes while we are using the past	
239	form of every verb because we are talking	
240	about unreal situations] I have eaten a	
241	sandwich but I feel hungry now. Ok let's	
242	do it together. Ayça?	
243	S4: I feel hungry	
244	T5: hıhım	
245	S4: as if I hadn't eaten	
246	T5: <u>hadn't</u> , hadn't eaten a sandwich,	
247	ok? I feel hungry as if or as though I	
248	hadn't eaten a sandwich. Ok. Emm is it	
249	clear? Is there a question about the	
250	topic? Gamze, Ayça, Zeynep?	
251	((All students says no))	
252	T5: My part is over then, thank you.	

APPENDIX 8 Stimulated Recall and Related Classroom Sessions of ST3 and Initial Themes

Number of Comment	Discussion of event	Actual Classroom Transcript	Relation to the Interview Themes & Sections
1	<p>R: You also introduce what you are going to cover in this lesson as we are going to learn, right?</p> <p>T: Our supervisor told us how to deal with this; I mean in a step by step manner what to say, to do..etc. It's completely not my choice. In my opinion, starting from the context, in other words following an indirect, inductive pattern is much better. But the supervisor told me to start with a comparison between will and going to right away- at the same time we are told to teach a thing at a time.</p> <p>R: Yes, one thing at a time.</p> <p>T: Actually this is what is supposed to happen but the supervisor told me to get into details of the differences between will and going to.</p> <p>R: Why did you switch here?</p> <p>T: Because I couldn't explain. It would take a lot of time. Even if this is a good class</p> <p>R: Previously you told me that that was not what you were planning. What was the most frustrating thing for you doing this way then?</p> <p>T: It felt like providing</p>	<p>T: Today our topic is simple future tense. Do you know the meaning of future?</p> <p>STS: Yes.</p> <p>T: ((writes future on blackboard)) What is the meaning of future?</p> <p>STS: Gelecek zaman [Future tense].</p> <p>T: And when we are talking about future tense, we use be going to, and will. We use 'be going to' to talk about planned events. Do you know the meaning of planned? Planlanmış olaylar için[for planned actions]. When we talk about planned events and intentions. Niyet. Planladığımız olaylar ve niyetimiz olan olaylar için kullanıyoruz [Intention. We use this to express actions we plan and have intention for] For example, you have decided to go to-on a holiday- on a summer holiday. You are going to buy something You are go shopping- you are going to go on shopping.</p> <p>((teacher writes 'I am going to go on shopping for the summer holiday' on the blackboard)) Gelecekteki tatil için alışverişe çıkacağım [I'm going to go shopping for my future holiday].</p> <p>From 11:07 onwards</p> <p>T: And second usage of will. We use will</p>	<p>*Supervisor influence</p> <p>*Resistance to authority</p> <p>*Resistance to code switching</p> <p>*Tutor-supervisor influence</p> <p>I cant really tell. I mean, the teacher claims old methods work better..and the other methods don't work or vain attempts, waste of time. They have a coursebook they have to cover, a curriculum they have to follow. They can not spare time for extra things.</p> <p>[As for my case, there were some occasions that I could not explain things. The feeling not beingunders tood. I mean if you can not explain a particular</p>

	<p>a formula or moulding. R : How would you do it if it was completely your call? T: I would definitely contextualize it with a text or situation T: [I will definitely ask what ‘intention’ means here. I told them even before they asked me R: (yaz tatili için alışveriş) [You switched to Turkish here] T: To be more clear. R: [Is this due to the supervisor’s influence? T: Our supervisor did not interfere at that moment. But the things she said might have had an effect on me. Things like the students might not understand you unless you translate what you say into Turkish. Actually she asked me to translate every single word to Turkish.</p> <p>R: It seems you don’t switch to Turkish while explaining will even if you make longer and more complicated sentences. T: You are right. R: Why do you think so? T: Could be related to my mood really. I look a bit frustrated.</p> <p>T: Our supervisor criticized me after this lesson in that the lesson was very grammar-centred. She said the lesson was very boring and that’s why the students did not participate to the</p>	<p>when we talk about spontaneously. Anlık [Spontaneouslyly] ... T: Anlık bir cümle, önceden düşünmediniz. Anında bir olay oldu, onun için söylüyorsunuz. [A spontaneous sentence, you did not think through before. Something happens all of a sudden and at that point you use will.] For example the phone is ringing. And you are the nearest person to it. And you say ‘OK, I’ll answer it’.</p>	<p>thing.. It would be better to translate sayings for example or words. Our tutor does it from time to time. He says English along with the Turkish of a word. It’s a nice way to handle I think. Using both of them.]</p> <p>[It could be a grammar item students never heard before. At that situation I could use Turkish to give instructions what to use where. But I could switch to Turkish only if I try it in English several times and see frustration on students. And I sometimes miss or ignore words. Then students ask me those words all of a sudden and I can not come up with an explanation in English. That’s because I don’t know how to deal with it in English and I used Turkish when this happened]</p>
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	<p>lesson actively. Me and my teaching partner were very surprised to hear that because the structure of this lesson was her decision. I mean I was supposed to cover 'will' and 'going to' in 20 minutes and my partner would go on with activities related to them. I felt a bit frustrated before teaching session because I knew 20 minutes would not be enough to deal with both of them. I discussed this with my partner as well. However we decided to go on her way. After the lesson, she told us if only we had covered will and going to separately the whole lesson. I mean one of us would do will and the other one would do be going to. Anyway I don't agree with her criticism because it was almost impossible to cover both and provide active participation along with it.</p> <p>R: Now you introduced will. Here you don't ask meanings?</p> <p>T: I think it's because I conditioned myself to use Turkish and then didn't find it logical to ask meanings over again. On the way I think I gave up.</p> <p>R: I wonder why you gave up.</p> <p>T: Maybe because of time constraints or</p>	<p>[She sticks to translation. She claims translation is the best way. From English to Turkish.]</p>
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	<p>maybe I felt like they were following my point at the time.</p> <p>R: Well, can you figure out if they got your point?</p> <p>T: I think it's the looks. Sometimes they look very confused, surprised. Sometimes they don't react, nod...etc. At those occasions, I feel like they are not following me. Of course this does not mean I am always fully aware of this situation.</p>		
2	<p>R: Did the supervisor intervene into the contents of this lesson or not?</p> <p>T: She just handed us the subject matter and we decided what to do.</p> <p>R: There is / there are; some / any right?</p> <p>T: Yes. Actually they were familiar with these. Our supervisor told us to teach a more familiar topic rather than introducing a new topic.</p> <p>R: I see that you are writing example sentences with their correct answers right away. I wonder why you did not ask the students to respond to them.</p> <p>T: I don't know. Maybe it's due to the fact that I knew that the students had background information about the topic so they might not need to be questioned about them.</p>		
3	R: Here I thought you would make them play		[Yes, one should. But the

	<p>a game such as Chinese Whisper but it is an act-out activity.</p> <p>T: Could be yes.</p> <p>R: I wonder if the instructions you give during this activity are in Turkish or English.</p> <p>T: Turkish, Turkish definitely. Otherwise it could be a nightmare. It already was anyway. I would rather not have to do it in Turkish, but I had to. I was quite frustrated during this activity. I told them to sing a song, and they told me ‘What are we going to sing?’</p>		<p>teacher should not translate every single word or sentence.]</p>
4	<p>T: Here I changed my lesson plan. The supervisor told me to change the way I was planning to teach. Actually I was not going to repeat what my partner friend did but apparently she made a mistake and the supervisor told me to go through it again.</p> <p>T: I just want to add something here. Here I follow a deductive approach and it does not take a long time to introduce this way. If I went inductive, however, it would probably take more time. So in a way sometimes it makes sense I suppose.</p> <p>R: I remember your teacher partner provided direct translations of the</p>		

	<p>examples she used, the ones at the reported speech activities. But you haven't done this so far. Was this a spontaneous or did you have an idea about this in your mind before?</p> <p>T: I never included using Turkish in my lesson plan. I think that's because my focus was on the grammatical point I was trying to make; which was can-could change during reported speech.</p> <p>R: As a last remark, I would like to ask you about your impressions on your performance during lessons in terms of the things you regret doing or things that could improve , or happy about.</p> <p>T: I think I should write down the instructions before the lesson as our tutor advised. I think I need to do it. I figured that my lessons are so dull. I could make it more fun, I mean, even I got bored watching these videos. I can't imagine how those poor students felt.</p> <p>R: All right, what do you think you did well?</p> <p>T: I don't know... doesn't seem like there were a lot of good stuff.</p> <p>R: Come on; don't be so hard on yourself.</p> <p>T: I am an easy-going teacher. I did not terrorize the students; I tried to encourage</p>		
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	<p>them to talk as much as possible. Maybe because of their own teacher's influence, they were very reluctant to take part in the lesson actively. I think I did my best. Thank you so much for this opportunity by the way. It gave me the chance to have self-reflection on myself, which is not a very integral part of this course.</p>		
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APPENDIX 9 Sample Interview Coding of ST1

Line	Data Extract	Codes
19-22	..in the beginning of the practice there were times I said these things we are supposed to do are very artificial.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Practice being artificial 2. Beginning thoughts on the practice
26	But there were couple of things our tutor told us, important things.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Effect of tutor
37	These things were about being teaching process' being more authentic...When I started implementing those, it started to be more realistic because I began to understand students.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Teaching process' s being more authentic 5. Lessons being realistic 6. Understanding students
47	Then I recognized students started to understand me.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 7. Students' understanding
54	At first everything felt very silly,	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Practice being silly

	artificial; everything I did at university did not work at school.	9. Practice being artificial 10. University experience not working
68	It absolutely went better with time. I said to myself when I start teaching at a school most of the things will be right in its place.	11. Time effect on teaching experience
75-95	I feel myself some kind of a reading expert. We had prepared lots of reading activities at university...lesson plans, before reading, after reading questions. We were taught how to deal with it. But it all makes sense and becomes useful after one uses these and says it actually works.	12. Preparations for teaching reading 13. Using methods taught at the university
148	But later it became much easier after our supervising teacher gave us full freedom about the things we were supposed to do in class	14. Having freedom in lesson content without supervisor intervention
162	It was a language class ...they did not have a main course book. We thought we could do any kind of activities we wanted to as they did not have a course book.	15. Getting to choose own activities because of not having a course book.
174	But it turns out it is much harder to do activities in a class without a course book. The most important deficiency was our doing reading all the time. I like it a lot though. We taught grammar for couple of times...They were really boring. Really bad.	16. Difficulty of not having a course book 17. Problem of doing reading activities all the time 18. Teaching grammar being boring and bad
196	After our supervisor gave us space we felt much better. She gave us some advice most of the time like; if you do this and that it would be better type of thing. However, these things were mostly the things she wanted. She had her way of teaching reading and vocabulary but I did not want to teach like her. In general I did not want to do the way she wanted me to.	19. Importance of space 20. Desire to teach her own way not the way supervisor imposes 21. Resistance to supervisor's way
215	Because of our tutor in a way. I mean he told us to do the right thing in class. In a way it is a very strong stand but he said you are not responsible to her (supervisor)	22. Responsibility to tutor, not supervisor. 23. Doing the right (ideal) thing in class 24. Importance of space.

	but to me. You are supposed to do the right thing in class, the ideal thing. After we had more space in class, our supervisor did not show up for a while. .You started coming along and I think she felt more comfortable, maybe thinking there is an observant in class. You also did not intervene in the way I thought anyway. So I started to do whatever I wanted to. I chose the topics myself.	25. Supervisor's not showing up 26. Lack of intervention 27. Being able to choose topic
255	For example, I cannot name anything in particular for reading but she intervened couple of times, like you should do this kind of thing. As for reading our tutor told us that we should make students read texts very fast.	28. Tutor's point and supervisor's point of teaching reading 29. Making students read fast (tutor's point)
285	He said these students are private school students. They must have done plenty and exposed to language well enough. Make them read text fast and ask questions right after. Make them speak a lot and allow them to make deductions with comprehension questions. Misses Belgin told us to read the text out loud and then let students read again silently. It did not sound enjoyable to me. I think reading again and again is boring.	30. Boring way of teaching reading and enjoyable way of teaching.
351	The lessons I used (Turkish) most are probably grammar lessons. Because at grammar lessons our tutor told us not to use labelling. Because we are providing structures at these lessons, this is this and that, so on. Especially then one feels the need to use Turkish for some reason. It actually happens that way. Especially while addressing to subject, object and so on. These are all labelling.	31. Most code switching in grammar lessons 32. Code switching to avoiding labelling
385	Then when I use labelling, students do not get it in different occasions...I remember teaching adverbs of manner and adverbs of	33. Difficulty of teaching with labelling 34. Learning grammatical titles before teaching

	time ((She refers to adverbial clauses of manner and time here)). In both cases, I can frankly tell you, before teaching these, when our supervisor teacher told me to teach them, I did not have the faintest idea what they were all about. Seriously.]	
401	After thinking to myself, I do not remember such a thing, what the heck it is all about, I referred to a grammar book right away. I came across to as if/as though in manner section. I thought to myself, oh that? I mean, when she said adverbs of manner, I did not know it was labelled such even after my 4 years in ELT department.	35. Self-awareness of a grammar item
419	I can frankly say I use Turkish most while teaching grammar. Other times I taught reading for most of the time. While teaching reading, I suppose I used Turkish while teaching vocabulary.	36. Using code switching while grammar 37. Using code switching teaching vocabulary
430	As for vocabulary, I always had English equivalents and meaning to make it easier to explain to students	38. Strategy to avoid switching (having English eq)
440	Sometimes I felt the need to use Turkish directly in order to save time actually. I think this is the underlying reason.	39. Reason for switching
487	Ok, so if I went to England to learn English, then it would be my second language. As it is foreign language here, exposure to language is limited. As the exposure is limited, students have difficulty in understanding. I can sincerely say that I could understand very little when I first started studying in this department. Yes, I was listening a lot; I was trying to get exposed as much as I could. I could not understand videos or songs but I persistently kept on listening	40. Importance of exposure to target language. 41. Reason for avoiding code switching 42. Own learning experience
523	It's like shifting from a second language situation to foreign	43. Indispensability of using Turkish in classes with priority to English

	<p>language situation. Then one starts understanding more and more. Having said that, teachers might feel the need to use a bit of Turkish at classes. They must use Turkish. But I think the priority should be at English. Our tutor is right in that matter. Speak English- well this teacher is going to speak English at all times, she won't speak Turkish or will speak very little Turkish. If you create an image like this for students, they try to understand more, which happened to be the case at language class I taught</p>	<p>44. Creating a teacher self for students who speaks English at all times.</p>
545	<p>They started speaking Turkish during the break. Whenever they spoke Turkish, I always responded and warned them in English to prompt them to speak English to me. And from now on, they stopped using Turkish. They started using very little Turkish because that's the image they get from the teacher – thinking teacher will ask me to respond in English.</p>	<p>45. Persistence in using English and how it works 46. Creating an only English speaking teacher image</p>
583	<p>(upon being asked meaning of particular vocabulary) Yes, I was shocked and thought how it is possible? Because for example/for instance are taught together in conjunctives.</p>	<p>47. Being asked meaning of simple words.</p>
605	<p>I was surprised. But another thing is that sometimes they actually know some words that I think they probably don't know. Sometimes that amazed me too.</p>	<p>48. Unexpected student knowledge.</p>
615-624	<p>I always detect some words before teaching reading. In case they ask me some words, in case of the slimmest case. For example I did not write down journey thinking they must already know what it means. However, I also observed some cases in which they actually know some words I thought they would not. Actually I do not have a precise thought on</p>	<p>49. Pre-detection of potential unknown vocabulary 50. Getting prepared for explanation of potential unknown vocabulary 51. Unclear pre-lesson vocabulary knowledge of students</p>

	that. But as said, I remember they did not know some very simple words.	
677	They (other lecturers at the university) gave some ideas. Frankly I don't remember anyone urging not to use Turkish in class. I guess everyone is aware of this, I mean it is a necessity.	52. Department's attitude towards Turkish use in classes 53. Turkish usage's necessity in class.
696	Apart from that, yes it should be used but first choice should always be English and this persistence, I mean persistence of speaking English should never be dropped. Plus our tutor also likes this. I mean novice teachers are not very good at paraphrasing. With time, a teacher can learn how to describe something according to the level of students by simplifying the language. That was what our tutor said basically.	54. Priority of English with persistence 55. Reason and acknowledgement of persistence of English use in class. 56. Paraphrasing and simplifying teacher talk in English
715	I think English can be used this way. You modify your language according to their level. I think we can learn how to reach out to students by using less and easier words	57. Language modification according to the level of students.
734	All of our teachers told us to use Turkish because we will need it very often but try to use English to expose our students	58. Consistency between university and school teacher on Turkish usage
784	Misses Belgin well, 9th classes had course books. When there is a course book – I was quite surprised during my first observation because I observed a language class. She does not use English at language class. She uses English more at 9th class. I was absolutely surprised because there are more exercises in coursework. Lots of detailed questions, reading comprehension questions.	59. Difference between two classrooms supervisor teacher taught 60. More code switching in course book class- less code switching in language class
801	You know they (course books) direct you a lot. I can say she was really good at it or it is because of her experience. It might be very ordinary for her or maybe it's	61. Importance of direction of course book. 62. Help of course book on teacher's production in class.

	because I'm not as good as she is. For example, when she would ask a lot of follow up questions out of one question she had in the book.	
824	Students were, of course, a bit reluctant in the beginning. But afterwards at 9th class, some students come to the fore. She started with those students. In 9th class, the amount of English usage was high due to the existence of course book. However in 10th class, course book does not exist, all they do is grammar. They just want to cover all grammar topics – whatever that serves I don't know	63. Relating to supervising teacher 64. Effect of course book on the amount of English usage 65. Lack of course book and grammar relationship
843	In the exam, there are lots of reading passages which are the most difficult section according to plenty of people. I don't know how they will manage that. In 10th class she used more Turkish and in 9th she used more English.	66. Reading vs grammar 67. Course book and language choice relationship
910	English is taught at state schools but after graduation when these kids apply for a job or something everything goes upside down. It gets stuck in a way. Education has inputs, processes and outputs. A student receives English input, and leaves the school as if she/he had never had process along the way while learning English.	68. Practical reasons for learning English 69. Processes of education and identification of a problem in English learning process.
932	That's why government must have thought this to be as a failure. And yes, it's true, it's a failure. They thought of reasons for this. OK let's go back to the start. Let's reconstruct English teaching again, but what should we do? What is missing? These students can't communicate in English. Their grammar is OK but they can't speak. OK, that is the problem, we also say this. English for communication, English for communication. So it seems our teachers fail to achieve that.	70. The failure of English teaching, especially speaking 71. English for communication due to teachers' failure in teaching
950	So who can do this? Teachers	72. Need for permanent solutions

	<p>from foreign countries. Let's bring teachers from these countries. The easiest solution. Yes it would help, why wouldn't it? But it is vain because this is related to the economy. Instead of this heavy burden this might bring on budget, a development plan for English teaching would be successful if it is implemented strictly. I believe in strictness in this matter and if this progress plan is taken seriously, why not? Or the curriculum of English teaching department could be innovated or guest lecturers could teach at our faculties. Guest lecturers could teach speaking to prospective teachers. I believe it could be much affordable. I mean why would my taxes be spent on something vain if there are more economical solutions? Yes having foreign teachers would help but more permanent solutions are what we need.</p>	<p>for teaching speaking</p> <p>73. The economy and cost of government's plan of bringing foreign teachers</p> <p>74. Innovation of curriculum of English teaching department</p>
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